

ABSTRACT

Pamela H. Breedlove, TEACHER EVALUATION IN NORTH CAROLINA: TEACHER PERCEPTIONS DURING A TIME OF CHANGE (Under the direction of Dr. Lynn Bradshaw). Department of Educational Leadership, March 2011.

Teacher evaluation has the potential to lead to improved instruction and professional growth, but, in practice, this potential is often unrealized. North Carolina has revised its teacher evaluation process to include many of the elements that are supported by research as necessary for effective teacher evaluation. The purpose of this study was to determine whether these changes have had any effect on teacher perceptions of evaluation as measured by specific questions on the North Carolina Teacher Working Conditions (TWC) Survey. These TWC Survey questions asked teachers whether they are held to high professional standards for delivering instruction, whether they receive feedback that can help them improve instruction, whether the procedures for teacher evaluation are consistent, whether they are encouraged to reflect on their own practice, and whether they are encouraged to try new things to improve instruction.

The new teacher evaluation process in North Carolina was piloted in 2007-08 and then implemented in three phases beginning in the fall of 2008. Data from the 2008 and 2010 TWC Surveys were obtained from the North Carolina Professional Teaching Standards Commission. A series of dependent samples *t* tests was conducted to compare TWC Survey responses from a group of school districts in 2008, when they had not yet begun to use the new teacher evaluation process, to their responses in 2010 after almost two years of experience with the process. The results of the *t* tests yielded no significant differences. A series of independent samples *t* tests was conducted to compare responses from a set of districts that, at the time of the 2010 TWC Survey, had been using the new teacher evaluation process between two and three years to a set

of districts that had not yet begun to use the new process and to the responses from the state as a whole. There was a small but significant positive difference in teacher perceptions in those LEAs that had the most experience with the new teacher evaluation process at the time of the 2010 TWC Survey.

TEACHER EVALUATION IN NORTH CAROLINA:
TEACHER PERCEPTIONS DURING A TIME OF CHANGE

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Pamela H. Breedlove

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TEACHER EVALUATION IN NORTH CAROLINA:
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by

Pamela H. Breedlove

APPROVED BY:

DIRECTOR OF DISSERTATION: _____
Lynn Bradshaw

COMMITTEE MEMBER: _____
William Grobe

COMMITTEE MEMBER: _____
Lane Mills

COMMITTEE MEMBER: _____
Marjorie Ringler

COMMITTEE MEMBER: _____
William Rouse, Jr.

INTERIM CHAIR OF THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP:

William Rouse, Jr.

DEAN OF THE GRADUATE SCHOOL:

Paul Gemperline

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This work is dedicated in honor of my husband, James Breedlove, my daughter, Jamie Renee Breedlove Wiggins, and my father, Marvin Lane Holland, and in memory of my mother, Sadie Elizabeth “Bobbie” Pipkin Holland.

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

There are a variety of reasons given for evaluating the performance of teachers.

According to the Joint Committee on Standards for Educational Evaluation [JCSEE] (2009), “the fundamental purpose of personnel evaluation in education settings is to help provide effective services to students” (p. 1). However, there are many facets to the process and purpose of the evaluation of teaching. Teacher evaluations can provide information on what is considered acceptable performance (Collins, 2004; Garth-Young, 2007; Gordon, Meadows, & Dyal, 1995; Koops & Winsor, 2006; Nolan & Hoover, 2008; North Carolina Department of Public Instruction [NCDPI], 2004; Peterson, 2000; Rockoff, 2004; Schlechty, 1990; Stronge, Richard, & Catano, 2008), measure teaching outcomes (Goldrick, 2002; JCSEE, 2009; Wright, Horn, & Sanders, 1997), satisfy requirements for certification or licensure (Holdzkom, 1991; NCDPI, 2004), promote excellence and celebrate success (Irvin, Meltzer, & Dukes, 2007; JCSEE, 2009; Koops & Winsor, 2006; NCDPI, 2004; Peterson, 1995; Peterson & Peterson, 2006; Schlechty, 1990), recognize student achievement (Peterson & Peterson, 2006), monitor and encourage instructional improvement initiatives and innovative ideas (McGreal, 1989; Peterson, 1995), promote self-assessment (NCDPI, 2004), and provide direction for professional growth or remediation (Beers, 2006; Collins, 2004; Davis, Pool, & Mits-Cash, 2000; Ellett & Garland, 1987; Garth-Young, 2007; Glanz, Shulman, & Sullivan, 2007; Glickman & Gordon, 1987; JCSEE, 2009; Leithwood, Louis, Anderson, & Wahlstrom, 2004; Loup, Garland, Ellett, & Rugutt, 1996; NCDPI, 2004; Stronge et al., 2008; Tang & Chow, 2007) and school improvement or reform (Davis, Ellett, & Annunziata, 2002; Leithwood et al., 2004; Milanowski & Heneman, 2001). They can also satisfy legal requirements and serve as a mechanism of quality control, providing the necessary documentation for tenure or dismissal (Al-Shammari & Yawkey, 2008;

Beers, 2006; Danielson, 2001; Danielson & McGreal, 2000; Duke & Stiggins, 1986; Ellett & Garland, 1987; Gordon et al., 1995; Holdzkom, 1991; JCSEE, 2009; Kyriakides, Demetriou, & Charalambous, 2006; Loup et al., 1996; NCDPI, 2004; Peterson, 2000; Peterson & Peterson, 2006; Schlechty, 1990; Schmoker, 2006; Tang & Chow, 2007; Teddlie, Stringfield, & Burdett, 2003; Toch & Rothman, 2008; Webster, 1994). While Peterson (2000) asserted that “there is little evidence that evaluation actually does improve practice” (p. 36) and that this purpose of evaluation is given too much emphasis, a considerable number of authors suggested that improving teaching and learning should be one of the main goals of teacher evaluation (Acheson & Gall, 1997, 2003; Al-Shammari & Yawkey, 2008; Clayton, 2008; Collins, 2004; Danielson, 2001; Danielson & McGreal, 2000; Davis et al., 2000; Davis et al., 2002; DuFour & Eaker, 1992; Duke & Stiggins, 1986; Garth-Young, 2007; Glanz et al., 2007; Glickman, Gordon, & Ross-Gordon, 2009; Goldrick, 2002; Gordon et al., 1995; Iwanicki, 2001; Johnson, 1999; JCSEE, 2009; Kelly, 2006; Kimball, 2002; Koops & Winsor, 2006; Marshall, 2005; Mooney & Mausbach, 2008; NCDPI, 2004; Nordheim, 2006; Oliva, Mathers, & Laine, 2009; Ovando, 2005; Payne & Hulme, 1988; Schlechty, 1990; Sclan, 1994; Sinnema & Robinson, 2007; Spears, 1953; Stronge et al., 2008; Sullivan & Glanz, 2005; Teddlie et al., 2003; Tucker, Stronge, Gareis, & Beers, 2003; Webster, 1994; Weisberg, Sexton, Mulhern, & Keeling, 2009; Williamson & Blackburn, 2009). However, Glickman, Gordon, and Ross-Gordon (2010) caution that we need to define “what type of instruction we wish to improve” (p. 92). Nevertheless, whether the evaluation process can successfully achieve that goal may depend greatly on the consistency and quality of implementation (Davis et al., 2000; Kimball, 2002; Ovando & Harris, 1993; Wang & Day, 2002) and the attitudes and perceptions of the administrators and the teachers being

evaluated (Astor, 2005; Barnett, 2006; Davis et al., 2000; Duke & Stiggins, 1986; Gordon et al., 1995; Kimball, 2002; La Masa, 2005; Milanowski & Heneman, 2001).

Statement of the Problem

Although the goal of using teacher evaluation to improve classroom instruction may be the ideal, reality may be somewhat different. In a survey of 300 principals in three states, Gordon et al. (1995) found that 70% of principals valued the formal evaluation process as a tool for improving instruction, but this raised a concern about the remaining 30%. Regarding the importance of this problem with value, Gordon et al. (1995) stated that “when the formal observation process is not accepted as being important in helping to improve instruction, the manner and spirit in which it is conducted could be compromised” (pp. 14-15).

In addition, principals often indicate that the lack of time to spend on the evaluation process is an issue that impacts effectiveness (Acheson & Gall, 2003; Davis et al., 2000; Garth-Young, 2007; Kimball, 2002; Milanowski & Heneman, 2001; Painter, 2000a, 2000b). Garth-Young reported that of over 600 middle and junior high school principals surveyed in Illinois who were asked about the barriers to providing quality teacher evaluations, *time constraints* was the most frequent choice at 35%. In a case study on three school districts, Kimball (2002) found that “most principals sacrificed personal time in order to complete evaluations” (p. 256).

Apparently this problem with time is not a recent one. McCue and Burdick (1956), in a study of high school principals in Virginia, reported that they worked, on average, 48.5 hours per week and spent only 7.5 hours, or 15.4% of their time, on supervision. They further reported that a 1932 study by Billett had discovered that principals spent an average of 15.2% of their time on supervision, concluding that this problem of allocating time for this most important aspect of school administration – the supervision of instruction – had still not been solved. Although

McCue and Burdick suggested that supervision should account for 50 to 60% of the principal's time, Spears (1953), another author of the time disagreed. Spears, who was the author of several books on teaching and supervision and the superintendent of the San Francisco Unified School District from 1955 to 1967 (see the Lilly Library Manuscript Collections database at <http://www.indiana.edu>), indicated that there was no point in setting a percentage of time that the principal should devote to supervision of instruction. Spears (1953) asserted that supervision should be a much more integrated task and questioned whether, if the principal were unable to find sufficient time for the task, it was due to the other demands on the principal's time or simply the "inclination of the principal" (p. 207). Unfortunately, Marshall (2009) indicated that however much time is spent in supervision, that time may essentially be wasted on an activity that "rarely improves classroom teaching" (p. xiv). "Since conscientious teacher evaluation takes considerable time and effort on the part of both teachers and administrators, it is important to maximize its benefits for both teachers and students" (Sinnema & Robinson, 2007, p. 321). Principals have a great many demands on their time, and they need to feel confident that the time spent in teacher evaluation is going to lead to improved instruction.

Teachers themselves sometimes do not find the teacher evaluation process to be meaningful (Acheson & Gall, 2003; Clayton, 2008; Robles, 2007). "In general, even though teachers may understand the process and procedures of the evaluation system and perceive it to be administered fairly, they are less likely to see the value in it if they perceive that their participation simply creates more work for them, causes stress, and doesn't produce rewarding personal outcomes for them" (Schumacher, 2004, p. 82). Indeed, Wood (1992) suggested that teachers see the evaluation process as "helplessness inducing" (p. 333) rather than helpful.

In the state of North Carolina, recent changes to the teacher evaluation process have been implemented with the stated purpose of professional growth for teachers through assessment and with their active participation (North Carolina State Board of Education [NCSBE], 2008). Although this stated intent seems to address some of the issues that exist with teacher evaluation, it may not be effective unless teachers perceive that the process is worthwhile. This study explored possible changes in teacher perceptions that may have occurred relative to these changes in teacher evaluation policy. The next section of this paper presents the context for this study and some of the events leading to change in the teacher evaluation process in North Carolina.

Background and Context

In the state of North Carolina, there have recently been changes in the policy that sets forth guidelines for teacher evaluation. These policy changes have addressed the processes used as well as the instruments, with the goals of professional growth and teacher involvement. In addition, North Carolina has conducted biannual surveys regarding teacher working conditions, and the data gathered are made available online. In these surveys, several questions ask teachers about their perceptions of a number of conditions that are related to teacher evaluation.

Teacher Evaluation Policy

In North Carolina, the State Board of Education has attempted to improve the way teachers are evaluated by enacting a policy that changes both the process and the instrument used. Although the process and instrument were piloted in the 2007-08 school year, the actual policy was not enacted until October 2, 2008 (NCSBE; see Appendix A). During that meeting, State Board member and co-chair of the Twenty-first Century Professionals committee, Shirley E. Harris (personal communication, NCSBE meeting, Raleigh, North Carolina, October 2, 2008),

commented that this policy “is certainly better practice than we have had before.” With the adoption of a new teacher evaluation instrument and process in North Carolina, the North Carolina Teacher Evaluation Process (NCTEP), teachers and principals are being asked to change the way they do the business of teacher evaluation in hopes that the process truly will be improved.

In the fall of 2007, 13 Local Education Agencies (LEAs) in North Carolina, piloted the new teacher evaluation process (C. Barbour, NCPTSC, personal communication, September 27, 2010). This was followed by a three-year implementation (Public Schools of North Carolina, n.d.-f) as shown in Table 1. At the time of this study, the Phase III districts had not yet begun implementation.

Statewide Surveys

In 2002, North Carolina became the first state to use a survey to assess various facets of teacher working conditions (Exstrom, 2009). This Teacher Working Conditions (TWC) Survey was developed and administered under the auspices of the governor and the North Carolina Professional Teaching Standards Commission (NCPTSC) and has been refined and repeated every other year since then (Exstrom, 2009; North Carolina’s Teacher Working Conditions Initiative, 2010a). Other states and districts have also begun using the TWC Survey, adapting the questions to meet their needs but keeping many of them the same as in the North Carolina TWC Survey (Exstrom, 2009; North Carolina’s Teacher Working Conditions Initiative, 2010a).

The North Carolina TWC Survey has been described as “a compilation of the voices of those who know schools best—the dedicated educators working in them each and every day” (Hirsh, 2009a, p. 4). The survey was begun as a way to measure implementation of the standards for teacher working conditions set forth by the NCPTSC (New Teacher Center & North Carolina

Table 1

North Carolina Teacher Evaluation Process (NCTEP) Pilot and Implementation Timeline

Year	State	Activity
2007-08	Pilot	13 LEAs piloted NCTEP ^a
2008-09	Phase I	13 LEAs implemented NCTEP (six were pilot districts)
2009-10	Phase II	39 LEAs implemented NCTEP (three were pilot districts)
2010-11	Phase III	63 scheduled to implement NCTEP (four were pilot districts)

Note. ^aThese 13 LEAs are also included in the three phases.

Professional Teaching Standards Commission [NCPTSC], n.d.). According to the North Carolina's Teacher Working Conditions Initiative (2010a) web site, the survey's current purpose is "to support sound educational policies and practices based on the views of teachers, principals and other certificated educators in North Carolina's public schools," (What is the North Carolina Teacher Working Conditions Survey? ¶2), one of these being the NCSBE's policy on teacher evaluation.

Relationship Between the TWC and Teacher Evaluation in NC

Not only did the NCPTSC develop the teacher working conditions standards on which the TWC Survey was based, but it was also instrumental in the development of the North Carolina Professional Teaching Standards, the North Carolina Standards for School Executives, and the various evaluation instruments based on those standards (Maddock, n.d.). It was through the efforts of the NCPTSC that the state of North Carolina has been revising all of its major evaluation instruments so that they are in alignment with each other and with the TWC standards (Maddock, n.d.). In fact, the TWC Survey is considered a key source of data for school administrators to use when reflecting on state standards and planning for school improvement (Hirsch, 2009a) and is listed as a suggested artifact for all seven standards in the North Carolina School Executive Evaluation instrument and in four of the seven standards for North Carolina Superintendents (Hirsch & Sioberg, n.d.).

Although the TWC Survey contains a multitude of questions in several domains such as time, facilities and resources, community support and involvement, managing student conduct, teacher leadership, school leadership, professional development, instructional practices and support and new teacher support (North Carolina's Teacher Working Conditions Initiative, 2010b), several questions are directly related to teacher evaluation. Because the 2008 survey

was administered just months prior to Phase I of NCTEP implementation, and the 2010 survey was administered before the Phase III districts had begun using the new process, the data from these two surveys could serve to provide preliminary information about whether the change in the North Carolina teacher evaluation instrument and process was accompanied by a change in teacher perceptions toward evaluation.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine whether the perceptions of teachers regarding the evaluation process had changed in LEAs using NCTEP as measured by specific questions on the 2008 and 2010 Teacher Working Conditions Surveys and whether the perceptions of the teachers in those districts were significantly different from the perceptions of teachers in the Phase III districts—those districts that had not yet begun the new evaluation process at the time of the 2010 TWC Survey—or from the perceptions of teachers statewide.

Because the pilot districts did have some experience with the process and instrument prior to the 2008 survey, and because there were pilot districts included in all three phases of the implementation plan, six distinct groups of LEAs (see Table 2) were considered in addition to the state as a whole. Of these six groups, only three had no experience with NCTEP at the time of the 2008 TWC Survey. Two of those groups, labeled *Phase I Only* and *Phase III Only*, were selected for further study since they both had no experience at the time of the 2008 survey and had the widest difference in experience of the three by the time of the 2010 survey. Two additional groups, labeled *Pilot and Phase I* and *Pilot and Phase II*, were also selected for further study because they had the most experience with the new instrument and process by the time of the 2010 survey. The three groups with the most experience, *Pilot and Phase I*, *Pilot and Phase II*, and *Phase I Only*, were combined for analysis and designated *Experienced LEAs*.

Table 2

Experience Grouping of LEAs Using the North Carolina Teacher Evaluation Process

LEAs	Category	NCTEP experience when survey conducted	
		2008	2010
6	<i>Pilot and Phase I^{ab}</i>	Almost one full year	Almost three full consecutive years
3	<i>Pilot and Phase II^{ab}</i>	Almost one full year	Almost two full years, not consecutive
4	<i>Pilot and Phase III</i>	Almost one full year	One full year but two years prior
7	<i>Phase I Only^{ab}</i>	None	Almost two full consecutive years
36	<i>Phase II Only</i>	None	Almost one full year
59	<i>Phase III Only^a</i>	None	None

Note. ^aSelected for this study. ^bCombined and designated *Experienced LEAs*

Research Questions

There were three questions pertaining specifically to teacher evaluation that appeared on both the 2008 and 2010 Teacher Working Condition Surveys; these questions concerned standards for instructional delivery, evaluative feedback, and evaluation procedures. There were also two questions added to the 2010 TWC Survey that pertained to elements of the new NC teacher evaluation process; these questions concerned whether teachers were encouraged to reflect on their practice and try new things to improve their instruction. Consideration of these survey questions led to the following research questions:

1. Is there a difference in the perceptions of teachers in the *Phase I Only* LEAs as expressed in the 2010 TWC Survey as compared to the 2008 TWC Survey regarding whether
 - a. They are held to high professional standards for delivering instruction?
 - b. They receive feedback that can help them improve instruction?
 - c. Procedures for teacher evaluation are consistent?
2. Is there a difference in the perceptions of teachers in the *Experienced LEAs* and the perceptions of teachers in the *Phase III Only* LEAs as expressed in the 2010 TWC Survey regarding whether
 - a. They are held to high professional standards for delivering instruction?
 - b. They receive feedback that can help them improve instruction?
 - c. Procedures for teacher evaluation are consistent?
 - d. They are encouraged to reflect on their own practice?
 - e. They are encouraged to try new things to improve instruction?

3. Is there a difference in the perceptions of teachers in the *Experienced LEAs* and the perceptions of teachers in the state as a whole (*All LEAs*) as expressed in the 2010 TWC Survey regarding whether
 - a. They are held to high professional standards for delivering instruction?
 - b. They receive feedback that can help them improve instruction?
 - c. Procedures for teacher evaluation are consistent?
 - d. They are encouraged to reflect on their own practice?
 - e. They are encouraged to try new things to improve instruction?

Research Hypotheses

From the research questions, the following null hypotheses will be tested:

1. There is no significant difference in the perceptions of teachers in the *Phase I Only* LEAs as expressed in the 2010 TWC Survey as compared to the 2008 TWC Survey regarding whether
 - a. They are held to high professional standards for delivering instruction.
 - b. They receive feedback that can help them improve instruction.
 - c. Procedures for teacher evaluation are consistent.
2. There is no significant difference in the perceptions of teachers in the *Experienced LEAs* and the perceptions of teachers in the *Phase III Only* LEAs as expressed in the 2010 TWC Survey regarding whether
 - a. They are held to high professional standards for delivering instruction.
 - b. They receive feedback that can help them improve instruction.
 - c. Procedures for teacher evaluation are consistent.
 - d. They are encouraged to reflect on their own practice.

- e. They are encouraged to try new things to improve instruction.
- 3. There is no significant difference in the perceptions of teachers in the *Experienced LEAs* and the perceptions of teachers in the state as a whole (*All LEAs*) as expressed in the 2010 TWC Survey regarding whether
 - a. They are held to high professional standards for delivering instruction.
 - b. They receive feedback that can help them improve instruction.
 - c. Procedures for teacher evaluation are consistent.
 - d. They are encouraged to reflect on their own practice.
 - e. They are encouraged to try new things to improve instruction.

Assumptions

The following assumptions were made in this study:

- 1. It was assumed that the responses given by teachers in the Teacher Working Conditions Surveys were honest and reflected their true perceptions of the topics addressed by the questions.
- 2. It was assumed that school administrators in the districts identified as *Experienced LEAs* implemented the new teacher evaluation process as outlined in NCSBE policy.

Significance of the Study

Aside from all of the other missions of schools and school districts, their ultimate purpose is the education of children (Stronge et al., 2008). Even though there are many factors that influence student achievement, it has long been acknowledged that teacher quality has great impact (Babu & Mendro, 2003; Brophy, 1986; Clark & Astuto, 1994; Darling-Hammond, 2000; Goldrick, 2002; Haycock, 1998; Howard & McColskey, 2001; Nye, Konstantopoulos, & Hedges, 2004; Resnick, 2004; Rivkin, Hanushek, & Kain, 2005; Rockoff, 2004; Sanders &

Rivers, 1996; Stronge, Ward, Tucker, & Hindman, 2007), and it has been suggested that teacher quality is the major factor in determining student achievement (Crawford & Tasic, 2008; Drame & Pugach, 2010; Goldrick, 2009; Koops & Winsor, 2006; Peske & Crawford, 2005; Rothman, 2009; Sanders & Horn, 1998; Stronge et al., 2008; Weisberg et al., 2009; Wright et al., 1997). Thus, improving teacher quality is a vital component in overall school improvement. However, focusing on whole-school improvement may not provide the true picture of the link between teacher quality and student achievement. It is what happens in individual classrooms that makes the difference (Rothman, 2009). “One of the best-kept secrets in educational research, it seems, is the fact that differences in the quality of instruction from classroom to classroom within schools are greater than differences in instructional quality between schools” (Rothman, 2009, ¶ 1).

Because of the link between good teaching and student progress, principals feel pressed by the public and by parents to ensure that their teachers are effective (Acheson & Gall, 1997; Collins, 2004; Peterson & Peterson, 2006). Since the “state’s responsibility ... ends with guarantee of minimum competence” (Danielson & McGreal, 2000, p. 6), it falls to the principal to ensure that teachers are effective. Oliva et al. (2009) suggest that they can do this through effective teacher evaluation.

The key to success in teacher evaluation may very well be the perceptions and attitudes of the teachers as they participate in the process. In 1953, Spears made this point when he wrote that “perhaps the value of a supervisory program can best be measured by the affection and respect shown for it by the teachers. It may meet all the theoretical requirements for a good program; but if it is not accepted by those whom it is to serve, there is something wrong with it” (p. 443).

The evaluation of teachers is a vital part of the work of school administrators, yet Ebmeier (2003) stated that “ very little is known about its direct or indirect effect on teachers or the mechanism by which teacher supervision influences classroom instruction” (p. 110). Principals spend significant time and effort evaluating teachers, and teacher evaluation can have an impact on teacher quality. Because the perceptions of teachers toward the evaluation process may have an impact on effectiveness, this study seeks to determine whether there are differences in teacher perceptions of the evaluation process in North Carolina since the implementation of the revised teacher evaluation instrument and process.

Definitions

The following section defines the key terms used in this study.

Beginning Teachers – Beginning teachers are those teachers in their first three years of teaching, including teachers who graduated from approved teacher education programs, formerly called Initially Licensed Teachers (ILTs), as well as beginning teachers who received a license via an alternative route such as Lateral Entry, a program whereby individuals with a relevant four-year degree can receive a license to teach while completing courses and testing requirements to become fully licensed (NCSBE, 2006). Beginning teachers are contracted on a yearly basis (Public Schools of North Carolina, n.d.-a).

Career Status/ Tenured Teachers – For the purposes of this study, the terms *career status teachers* and *tenured teachers* are both used to indicate those teachers who have obtained career status. In North Carolina, teachers who have successfully taught for four years in the same LEA become eligible to achieve career status, which grants them a continuing contract (Public Schools of North Carolina, n.d.-a).

Evaluatee – An evaluatee is “the person whose qualifications or performance is evaluated” (JCSEE, 2009, p. 195). Evaluatees in this study include North Carolina classroom teachers in grades Pre-K through 12.

Evaluation – Evaluation is a “systematic investigation of the worth or merit of an evaluatee’s qualifications or performance in a given role in relation to a set of expectations or standards of performance” (JCSEE, 2009, p. 195).

Evaluator – For the purposes of this study, evaluators include North Carolina principals and their designees, generally assistant principals, who conduct formal and informal evaluations of classroom teachers (Mid-Continent Research for Education and Learning [McREL], 2009).

Formative Evaluation – “Formative evaluation is an ongoing evaluation designed to promote continuous feedback to the person being evaluated for the purposes of self-improvement and professional development” (Webb & Norton, 2009, p. 194). Formative evaluation involves goal-setting and feedback (Webb & Norton, 2009) and “is focused on the needs of teachers rather than on the organization’s need for accountability” (Glickman et al., 2010, p. 276).

Local Education Agency (LEA) – North Carolina currently has 115 individual school systems or LEAs; 100 of these are county school systems and 15 are city school systems (Public Schools of North Carolina, n.d.-c, n.d.-d).

Summative Evaluation – “Summative evaluation is evaluation that is conducted at the end of an activity or period of time and is designed to assess terminal behaviors or overall performance over a period of time. Summative evaluation is used to make employment decisions. ... Summative evaluation is formal, somewhat infrequent, and focuses only on the person being evaluated” (Webb & Norton, 2009, p. 194) and, in the context of teacher

evaluation, is “intended to meet the organizational need for teacher accountability” (Glickman et al., 2010, p. 275).

Overview of the Methodology

This study used quantitative research to determine whether the perceptions of teachers in *Experienced LEAs* toward aspects of the evaluation process were significantly different from the perceptions of teachers in *Phase III Only* LEAs or the state as a whole (*All LEAs*) as measured in the 2010 North Carolina Teacher Working Conditions Survey and whether the perceptions of teachers in *Phase I Only* LEAs changed significantly between the 2008 and 2010 administrations of the survey as measured by questions that were asked in both surveys. Data from the 2008 and 2010 North Carolina Teacher Working Conditions Surveys were collected and analyzed to determine if any differences in teacher attitudes existed and were significant.

Limitations of the Study

This study has the following limitations:

1. Because this study was conducted using existing data, assignment to groups was not random.
2. Because the two surveys used were conducted two years apart, some teachers would have been hired during that two-year period, causing variations in the actual length of experience with NCTEP for those individuals.
3. Because the data from the TWC were limited to LEAs in North Carolina, the findings may not be generalizable to other states or regions.
4. Because the data were self-reported, “the validity of the information is contingent on the honesty of the respondent” (Mertens, 2010, p. 173).

5. Because the level of implementation and faithfulness to the intent of the policy likely varied widely from LEA to LEA and from school to school, not all teachers in the same group of responses would have had similar experiences with the teacher evaluation process.
6. Because the schools and LEAs in the group *Phase I Only* had likely implemented other changes during the time between the 2008 and 2010 surveys, these other factors could have affected any changes in perceptions that may have been discovered as part of this study.

Organization of the Study

This study was organized into five chapters. Chapter one is the introduction to the study. Chapter two includes a review of literature on topics related to teacher evaluation in general and how it has been implemented in North Carolina. Chapter three outlines the research methodology including study design, data collection procedures, and statistical analyses. Chapter four provides an analysis of the data collected as related to the research hypotheses. Chapter five provides a summary of the results as well as conclusions, implications, and recommendations for practice and further study.

CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter provides a review of literature pertaining to teacher evaluation, beginning with an examination of the relationship between teacher evaluation and classroom instruction. The chapter continues with a review of various elements related to effective teacher evaluation and the principal's role in that process as well as some of the problems that are often experienced. This is followed by an overview of teacher evaluation policy in North Carolina and information about the newly adopted teacher evaluation instrument and process. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the perceptions of the teachers toward evaluation, surveys used to gather those perceptions, and the possible influence of perceptions on the effectiveness of teacher evaluation.

The Relationship between Teacher Evaluation and Classroom Instruction

In 1986, Brophy reported that researchers had been studying the link between teacher effectiveness and student achievement, but that it was only during the 15 years prior to his report that researchers had begun to focus on specific teaching behaviors, producing a significant number of studies on teacher effects. In summarizing the findings, he concluded that “teachers *do* make a difference” (p. 1,076). Since then, teacher quality has become the topic of a growing number of research studies as well as federal legislation such as the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (2002). Although this bill did not become law during the 111th Congress after it was introduced in April of 2010, Senate Bill 3242, known as the Teacher and Principal Improvement Act, stated as its first finding that “teacher quality is the single most important in-school factor influencing student learning and achievement” (Teacher and Principal Improvement Act, 2010, Findings and Purposes, ¶1), providing further evidence that the issue of teacher quality is a continuing and growing concern.

Recent evidence suggests that not only are teachers a factor in student achievement (Goldrick, 2002; Howard & McColskey, 2001; Nye et al., 2004; Resnick, 2004; Rivkin et al., 2005; Rockoff, 2004; Stronge et al., 2007), but they may be the main determinant of student success (Crawford & Tasic, 2008; Drame & Pugach, 2010; Goldrick, 2009; Koops & Winsor, 2006; Peske & Crawford, 2005; Rothman, 2009; Sanders & Horn, 1998; Stronge et al., 2008; Weisberg et al., 2009; Wright et al., 1997). As Koops and Winsor (2006) asserted, “the quality of education depends primarily on the quality of teachers in the classroom” (p. 61). Further, studies have shown that the impact of teacher effectiveness or ineffectiveness on student achievement is cumulative (Babu & Mendro, 2003; Haycock, 1998; Sanders & Rivers, 1996). Moreover, Drame and Pugach (2010) called teacher quality a “pivotal variable in the school experience of the nation's children and youth” (p. 55). Thus, it is imperative that all students are taught by effective teachers every year; as Babu and Mendro (2003) stated, “a sequence of ineffective teachers with a student already low achieving is educationally deadly” (p. 12).

In an online video on the topic of teacher quality, Charlotte Danielson said

The single most important factor, under the control of the school, influencing the quantity and nature of student learning is the quality of teaching. We now know this. And so it is essential – it’s imperative that schools have a way of ensuring high quality teaching.

(Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development [ASCD], n.d.-a,
http://www.ascd.org/research_a_topic/Effective_Teaching/RTT.aspx, 5:55)

She believes teacher evaluation to be the ideal mechanism to ensure that children are taught by quality teachers (ASCD, n.d.-b). She is not alone in this belief.

Several studies (Astor, 2005; Colby, 2001; La Masa, 2005; Ruckel & Hennes, 1994) reported that the majority of teachers believed that their experiences with teacher evaluation led

to improved instruction or improved student performance. In a survey of principals' perspectives in three states (Gordon et al., 1995), 70% of responding principals indicated that classroom observations were effective in improving instruction. One theme in these studies was the importance of the focus of the evaluation process. For example, Astor reported that the most effective feedback from evaluators was that conducted in a formative, non-evaluative format, and Colby found that teachers in school districts that were using an alternative evaluation system that focused on student learning perceived that teacher evaluation had a greater impact on classroom instruction and school improvement than those systems using the traditional evaluation system.

However, not all results were positive. Kelly's (2006) case study in a successful middle school in California was unable to find a connection between the mandated teacher evaluation process and student achievement. In Sand's (2005) study, neither teachers nor administrators indicated that they believed teacher evaluation had any effect on teacher performance, especially in secondary schools. Schumacher's (2004) case study found that teachers were uncertain whether teacher evaluation helped improve instruction and neutral on whether it helped improve student learning. The teachers in Schumacher's study reported, rather, that evaluation was a source of stress and not valuable in their own professional growth or in promoting reflection on their teaching. In reviewing literature on supervision, Cooper, Ehrensall, and Bromme (2005) found that teacher evaluation serves more of a managerial than a collegial function and does little to help teachers improve instruction.

Bradshaw (2002) and Colby (2001) studied North Carolina's Teacher Performance Appraisal System (TPAS), which used the Teacher Performance Appraisal Instrument (TPAI) as the primary form to document teacher evaluations. Bradshaw found that less than half of the responses of evaluators and less than one third of the responses of teachers from the districts

studied indicated agreement that the TPAS helped improve student achievement and that slightly less than half of the teachers responding indicated that they found the evaluation process to be helpful. Colby compared survey responses from teachers in districts using the TPAS to responses from teachers in districts using a locally-validated alternative process and found that the perceptions of the latter group of teachers regarding whether teacher evaluation positively impacts student learning were significantly higher than those of the teachers in TPAS districts. Colby (2001) also interviewed the personnel directors from the 18 TPAS districts studied and reported that they “generally indicated that the TPAI had little or no impact on student learning” (p. 160), though they did believe the TPAI was useful in working with beginning teachers or experienced teachers who were having difficulty. Bradshaw also found that state requirements for evaluation processes were not consistently followed. For example, 27% of responding teachers reported that they had not been observed, even though at least one observation was required (Bradshaw, 2002).

It is clear that teacher evaluation is indeed a complex activity and that perceptions of its value vary widely within and among schools and school systems. However, there may be some attributes of evaluations that are common to those systems considered to be effective. Authors such as Sullivan and Glanz (2005) who stated that “the major role of a supervisor is to enhance the instruction of teachers” (p. 162) and that “supervisors can become a potent vehicle for the improvement of classroom instruction” (p. 171) and Stronge et al. (2008) who stated that “teacher evaluation can be a catalyst for school improvement” (p. 66), are numbered among those who provide some insight into what constitutes effective teacher evaluation.

Effective Teacher Evaluation

Wang and Day (2002) stated that “respect, safety, trust, [and] collaboration ... are considered key ingredients of effective teacher development, and hence need to be at the core of any teacher observation model” (p. 14). Because teacher evaluation is an interaction between an evaluator and an evaluatee, the majority of the factors derived via research and espoused by experts as necessary for effective evaluation involve processes rather than instruments.

Orientations, Pre-Observation Conferences, and Goal Setting

Such processes involve beginning with an orientation in which expectations are clarified (Beers, 2006; Mooney & Mausbach, 2008; Ovando & Ramirez, 2007; Tucker, 2001), holding pre-observation conferences (Acheson & Gall, 1997, 2003; Beers, 2006; Garth-Young, 2007; McCann, Johannessen, & Rica, 2005; Williamson & Blackburn, 2009), and setting goals for the evaluation (Acheson & Gall, 1997, 2003; Howard & McColskey, 2001; La Masa, 2005; Mooney & Mausbach, 2008; Stronge et al., 2008; Tellez, 2008; Webb & Norton, 2009; Williamson & Blackburn, 2009). Sullivan and Glanz (2005) suggested selecting only one focus for each evaluation so that the teacher can be more effective in addressing it.

As Tucker (2001) stated, “the first step in a fair evaluation process is the clear and explicit explanation of job expectations” (p. 53). When considered early in the process, clear expectations provide a yardstick by which teachers can measure their own practice (Howard & McColskey, 2001). Beers (2006) pointed out that when teachers are first hired, an orientation in which the principal communicates expectations is especially important, both to make sure that the teachers know what is expected and to help them feel prepared for their observations. Ovando and Ramirez found this to be a practice in their case study schools – three high schools identified as having high achievement, and Chaliès, Ria, Bertone, Trohel, and Durand (2004)

found that making expectations clear in advance was also helpful for pre-service teachers when being observed by their supervising teacher. “Unless teachers and evaluators communicate early and often about what is learned through evaluation, its value will be lost and opportunities for growth will be missed” (Stronge et al., 2008, p. 69).

Frequent Observations

Also recommended are frequent observations (Acheson & Gall, 1997; Cotton, 2003; La Masa, 2005; Marzano, Waters, & McNulty, 2005; Nordheim, 2006; Robles, 2007; Webster, 1994), with several studies suggesting that teachers themselves want more frequent observations (La Masa, 2005; Lansman, 2006; Payne & Hulme, 1988; Robles, 2007). Increasing the number of classroom observations can yield a better indication of what is occurring on a day-to-day basis (Robles, 2007; Webster, 1994) as well as provide additional opportunities for conversations and feedback between the evaluator and evaluatee (Nordheim, 2006). In Nordheim’s study, frequent, drop-in visits increased the opportunity for teachers to demonstrate improvement in areas discussed after previous observations. Having the principal in the classroom on a regular basis can minimize the effect of having an observer in the room (Webster, 1994) and “contribute to an enhanced school culture ... and improved communication between administrator and teachers” (La Masa, 2005, p. 113). Because time is an issue, Duke and Stiggins (1986) suggested that the number of observations should vary based on the needs of the teacher being observed.

Additional Data Sources

In addition to increasing the frequency of observations, administrators should also add information via the use of other data sources (Brinko, 1993; Duke & Stiggins, 1986; Glickman et al., 2009, 2010; Goldrick, 2002; Howard & McColskey, 2001; Irvin et al., 2007; Kimball, 2002; Koops & Winsor, 2006; Mooney & Mausbach, 2008; Oliva et al., 2009; Peterson, 2000; Peterson

& Peterson, 2006; Ponticell & Zepeda, 2004; Stronge et al., 2008; Stronge & Tucker, 1999; Webb & Norton, 2009). Additional sources could include portfolios (Cooper et al., 2005; Danielson & McGreal, 2000; Glickman et al., 2009; Goldrick, 2002; Mooney & Mausbach, 2008; Stronge et al., 2008; Stronge & Tucker, 1999; Sullivan & Glanz, 2005; Tucker et al., 2003), classroom documents such as lesson plans and student work (Duke & Stiggins, 1986; Howard & McColskey, 2001), school documents such as meeting records and committee involvement (Duke & Stiggins, 1986; Koops & Winsor, 2006), surveys or feedback from students and parents (Howard & McColskey, 2001; Irvin et al., 2007; Koops & Winsor, 2006; Peterson, 2000; Peterson & Peterson, 2006; Ponticell & Zepeda, 2004), professional development records (Howard & McColskey, 2001; Irvin et al., 2007; Peterson, 2000; Peterson & Peterson, 2006), documentation of involvement in professional organizations (Koops & Winsor, 2006), and student achievement data (Goldrick, 2002; Irvin et al., 2007; Mooney & Mausbach, 2008; Resnick, 2004; Sanders & Horn, 1998; Toch & Rothman, 2008; Weisberg et al., 2009). Using only one source of data, typically classroom observations, does not provide a complete picture of the teacher's performance (Peterson, 2000; Stronge et al., 2008; Sullivan & Glanz, 2005; Webb & Norton, 2009). Adding additional sources of data also increases the teacher's involvement in the process (Howard & McColskey, 2001; Peterson, 1995; Stronge & Tucker, 1999), increases the likelihood that the teacher will want to participate (Peterson, 2000), and helps improve the value of evaluative feedback (Brinko, 1993). Peterson (2000) reasoned that increasing the number of data sources is important if evaluations are to be fair. Whereas one source of data may be ideal for one teacher in one context, another teacher's performance may be better demonstrated through a different source (Peterson, 2000). If other teachers perceive that the evaluation process is unfair because it did not include consideration for teachers in special or

unique circumstances, they may “rally around their colleagues and subvert the entire system” (Peterson, 2000, p. 67). Robles (2007) and Kimball (2002) each found that teachers wanted to use additional sources of data in their evaluations, and Kimball’s study confirmed that teachers perceived that this made the evaluation process fairer. Additionally, Peterson (1995) suggested that evaluations can be more legally defensible when multiple sources of data were considered. Other benefits of including multiple data sources include the opportunity to increase reflection and professional growth (Danielson & McGreal, 2000; Duke & Stiggins, 1986; Goldrick, 2002; Howard & McColskey, 2001; Oliva et al., 2009; Stronge et al., 2008), improve communication with the evaluator (Stronge & Tucker, 1999), and tailor the process to individual teacher needs (Howard & McColskey, 2001; Webb & Norton, 2009). Including additional data is especially helpful when paired with a self-evaluation component (Glickman et al., 2009; Howard & McColskey, 2001; Stronge et al., 2008; Webb & Norton, 2009).

Post-Observation Conferences and Feedback

Effective post-observation conferences and feedback are vital to teacher evaluation (Acheson & Gall, 1997; Beers, 2006; Blasé & Blasé, 2001; Brinko, 1993; Buckingham & Coffman, 1999; Cotton, 2003; Ebmeier & Nicklaus, 1999; Garth-Young, 2007; Goldrick, 2002; Gregoire, 2009; Howard & McColskey, 2001; Irvin et al., 2007; Kelly, 2006; Kimball, 2002; La Masa, 2005; Lansman, 2006; McCann et al., 2005; McGreal, 1989; Ovando, 2005; Ovando & Harris, 1993; Ponticell & Zepeda, 2004; Tellez, 2008; Tucker, 2001; Wang & Day, 2002). Every teacher in Kelly’s (2006) case study indicated that they saw the post-observation conference as “the most positive aspect of the evaluation process” (p. 95). According to Ponticell and Zepeda, adults want feedback on their performance. Gregoire, in a study on evaluation for the purpose of awarding merit pay, reported on several aspects of evaluation found

to be most important to the tenured teachers surveyed; among those was the opportunity to receive feedback on strengths as well as areas for improvement.

Feedback is most useful when given in a safe setting (Acheson & Gall, 2003; Brinko, 1993; Irvin et al., 2007) in an atmosphere of collaboration and reflection (Acheson & Gall, 1997, 2003; Beers, 2006; Blasé & Blasé, 2001; Brinko, 1993; Howard & McColskey, 2001; La Masa, 2005). Some have suggested that the best setting for the post conference is the teacher's classroom (Acheson & Gall, 2003; Beers, 2006), both to increase the feeling of safety and to make it easier to discuss classroom setup or access artifacts to enhance the conversation. Providing effective feedback is often described as a method of inquiry, with the administrator spending much of the time listening to the teacher, using probing questions (Acheson & Gall, 2003; Beers, 2006; Blasé & Blasé, 2001; Howard & McColskey, 2001; Moller & Pankake, 2006; Stronge et al., 2008). When feedback is offered by the administrator, it should be specific (Beers, 2006; Brinko, 1993; Ovando, 2005; Wang & Day, 2002), constructive (Goldrick, 2002), descriptive, objective, and clearly based on fact (Acheson & Gall, 2003; Brinko, 1993; Gregoire, 2009; Ovando, 2005) and meaningful to the teacher (Beers, 2006; Brinko, 1993; Irvin et al., 2007) – possibly related to pre-determined goals (Brinko, 1993; Gregoire, 2009). Some authors (Beers, 2006; Brinko, 1993; Irvin et al., 2007) stated that feedback should be delivered as soon as possible after the observation, while others (Brinko, 1993; Glickman et al., 2009; Kimball, 2002) added that feedback should not be a one-time event; rather it should be an ongoing process. Regarding the format of feedback, Tucker (2001) stated that verbal feedback can be effective, but if improvement is needed, written feedback “offers greater clarify and weight ... and can spur changes” (p. 53), and Ovando suggested that written feedback can help teachers determine appropriate professional development, which can be an important outcome of feedback (Blasé &

Blasé, 2001; Goldrick, 2002; La Masa, 2005). Effective feedback should lead to goal setting (Beers, 2006; Brinko, 1993) which can lead to improved student learning; Cotton (2003) stated that “researchers have identified a link between principals’ classroom observation and feedback ... and student academic performance” (p. 31). When goals are set during feedback conferences, there should be a specific date of implementation (Beers, 2006). “Specific timelines should be agreed upon for the application of recommendations: ‘Sometime in the next two weeks, I would like you to invite me back to see...’” (Beers, 2006, p. 102). However, evaluation should not focus merely on reporting teacher performance (Davis et al., 2002; DuFour & Eaker, 1992; Hawley, 1982; Loup & Ellett, 1997; Robles, 2007; Sclan, 1994; Sinnema & Robinson, 2007; Stronge et al., 2008; Toch & Rothman, 2008; Wang & Day, 2002; Webster, 1994). When the feedback process is successful, it sparks an ongoing, collegial conversation about teaching and learning that leads to reflection and professional growth (Acheson & Gall, 2003; Beers, 2006; Blasé & Blasé, 2001; Brinko, 1993; Howard & McColskey, 2001). Having an emphasis on holding such conversations “promotes reflection on practice and mutual learning.... [and] recognizes the value of reflection in learning” (Danielson, 2001, p. 15).

Emphasis on Reflection and Professional Growth

Effective teacher evaluation should have an overall emphasis on reflection and professional growth (Blasé & Blasé, 2001; Costa & Kallick, 2000; Danielson & McGreal, 2000; Fenwick, 2001; Glickman et al., 2009, 2010; Hawley, 1982; Howard & McColskey, 2001; La Masa, 2005; Robles, 2007; Sclan, 1994; Stronge et al., 2008; Tucker et al., 2003). Although teachers can benefit from administrative feedback, they can also gain much from reflection and self-assessment (Costa & Kallick, 2000; Drake & McBride, 2000; Glickman et al. 2009, 2010; Koops & Winsor, 2006; Robles, 2007; Ross & Bruce, 2007; Tang & Chow, 2007; Tucker et al.,

2003). As Costa and Kallick (2000) stated, “in teaching, as in life, maximizing meaning from experiences requires reflection” (p. 60).

One way to encourage reflection is self-assessment or self-evaluation. As Schlechty (1990) stated, “given that performers know what is expected of them and the values that must be upheld to meet these expectations, the most powerful form of evaluation is self-evaluation” (p. 115). However Glickman et al. (2009) cautioned that self-assessment is more effective in teachers “functioning at moderate or high levels of development expertise, and commitment” (p. 221). In making recommendations for alternate evaluation plans in North Carolina, Bradshaw (1996) suggested that self-evaluation be a required component. Several studies (Howard & McColskey, 2001; Kimball, 2002; Ovando & Harris, 1993; Robles, 2007) reported positive teacher attitudes toward the opportunity for self-assessment. Robles’ (2007) study on how teachers want to be evaluated indicated that teachers want the opportunity to self-assess; indeed, they considered it a “necessity, commenting that all good teachers self-evaluate” (p. 221). Kimball reported that teachers who had an opportunity to use the evaluation rubric for self-assessment viewed this as an opportunity to be involved in their own evaluations. Howard and McColskey reported on an evaluation process in North Carolina that was an alternative to the TPAI process in use statewide at that time. In that process, teachers used the rubric that would be part of their summative evaluation for self-assessment, using the results to help them know how they would be evaluated and to decide what information they needed to gather to demonstrate their level of competence (Howard & McColskey, 2001). However, Ross and Bruce (2007) cautioned that self-assessment is only one part of an effective teacher evaluation program and will not, on its own, effect improvement.

It is also important to remember that self-assessment is just that – an assessment of one’s self – and may not reflect reality as seen by the eye of the observer (Edwards & Ewen, 1996; Kruger & Dunning, 1999). Edwards and Ewen reported that, in general, people tend to rate themselves higher than others would rate them, but that members of most minority groups tended to rate themselves lower than members of the majority. Kruger and Dunning found that those who are incompetent are likely to rate themselves more highly than is warranted while those who are at the highest levels of competence tend to underrate themselves. However Duke and Stiggins (1986) stated that, although a teacher’s self-assessment may be biased, it is still important because it impacts the teacher’s receptiveness to professional development. In the case of a teacher who does not believe that there are any issues, the principal should accept the teacher’s assessment (Acheson & Gall, 1997; Webb & Norton, 2009). Moller and Pankake (2006) agreed that poor teachers typically do not realize or admit that they are not performing well, but stated that, when they are confronted with evidence of their poor performance, they may respond by blaming others. If the principal believes that there is a disconnect between the teacher’s self-assessment and what is actually occurring, bringing in additional data could help; for example, the principal could recommend that the teacher videotape a lesson that they could view together (Acheson & Gall, 1997) or review and discuss with the teacher the evidence for each rating (Webb & Norton, 2009). Webster (1994) advised that, when working with experienced teachers, evaluators must deal with them “as co-professionals, as persons who have accumulated a wealth of information related to teaching that translates to learner growth. ... They must be ‘sold’ on the necessity for change, for adoption of new approaches to teaching” (pp. 224-225).

Another activity that can promote an overall emphasis on reflection and professional growth is the setting of goals and the use of plans for professional growth (Howard & McColskey, 2001; JCSEE, 2009; Koops & Winsor, 2006; La Masa, 2005; Moller & Pankake, 2006; Ross & Bruce, 2007; Stronge et al., 2008; Webb & Norton, 2009). In reporting the findings from research studies on management in the workplace, Buckingham and Coffman (1999) found that the best managers are very purposeful in their conversations with their employees; “they talk with each individual, asking about strengths, weaknesses, goals, and dreams” (p. 149). Evaluation results should be used to identify and individualize professional development needs (Hawley, 1982; JCSEE, 2009), and professional growth plans are an ideal way to meet the needs of individual teachers (Koops & Winsor, 2006).

Several authors pointed out the connection between self-assessment and goal setting (Howard & McColskey, 2001; Ross & Bruce, 2007; Webb & Norton, 2009). Ross and Bruce (2007) suggested that using self-assessment results can help the teacher by “providing ... clear standards of teaching, opportunities to find gaps between desired and actual practices, and a menu of options for action” (p. 153). Webb and Norton also stated that self-assessment results, along with evaluation data, can help the teacher in setting goals. The way this happens is by deliberate action on the part of the principal in empowering the teachers to take control of their own professional growth (Zepeda & Ponticell, 1998). Factors considered important in facilitating this kind of growth are clear expectations (Howard & McColskey, 2001), the selection of appropriate goals that specifically address the identified performance areas (Moller & Pankake, 2006), support during implementation (Moller & Pankake, 2006; Zepeda & Ponticell, 1998), and feedback (Howard & McColskey, 2001). This process of reflection,

feedback, and professional growth should be ongoing if continuous improvement is to occur (Costa & Kallick, 2000).

Focus on Student Learning

Finally, a focus on student learning should inform all of these processes (Allen & Palaich, 2000; Colby, 2001; Diamond & Handi, 2002; Duke & Stiggins, 1986; Ovando, 2005; Sinnema & Robinson, 2007; Webb & Norton, 2009; Webster, 1994). School administrators can have a positive influence on student learning by making student achievement an embedded priority in the culture of the school; one way that they accomplish this is by having high expectations for student learning (Ovando, 2005; Stronge et al., 2008).

Principals must be aware of how easily the focus of teacher evaluation can be shifted from learner outcomes to “teacher fluff,” those ineffective, yet showy behaviors that many teachers put forth as evidence of teaching effectiveness. ... While teacher *processes* are important, balance is the key. First and foremost, principals should be aware of *products*, of what learners are getting out of their classroom experiences. Principals are on safe ground when they focus primarily on learner-centered, not teacher-centered teaching behaviors. (Webster, 1994, p. 185)

Teacher decision making is the key to improved instruction (Glickman et al., 2010), and the way to improve teacher decision making is “by making teacher reflection, self-assessment, goal setting, professional development planning, implementation, and evaluation of results central to the supervision and evaluation process” (Ponticell & Zepeda, 2004, pp. 56-57).

Standards and Instruments

In addition to the processes surrounding teacher evaluation, there is evidence that having clear standards is a necessary condition (Acheson & Gall, 1997, 2003; Davis et al., 2000; Robles,

2007; Stronge & Tucker, 1999; Tucker, 1997, 2001; Webb & Norton, 2009) as is having an instrument that is clear and can be used to accurately reflect what is occurring in the classroom (Davis et al., 2000; Marshall, 2005; Webb & Norton, 2009). Robles, in a study of veteran teachers' evaluation preferences, found that, while the teachers in his study did not approve of all aspects of their teacher evaluation processes, they did appreciate having a clear set of standards – in that case, the California Standards for the Teaching Profession. Davis et al. studied the implementation of a new evaluation instrument; again, although not all teachers completely approved of the new process, several of the positive features that teachers listed were that the instrument was clearer and that it had high standards.

Peterson (2000) argued that teacher evaluation is more than just the choice of instrument, and that the main issues are people issues, while Schlechty (1990) pointed out that people tend to see the instrument *as* the evaluation rather than as one tool used as part of the evaluation. However, evaluation can provide an opportunity for people to learn what is expected and to begin to measure their own performance based on those expectations (Schlechty, 1990; Sullivan & Glanz, 2005; Tang & Chow, 2007). Nelson and Sassi (2005) asserted that the content of the forms used for teacher evaluation are a good indicator of “what the district believes it is important to know about ... teacher performance, and ... what constitutes ... adequate teaching performance” (p. 78). The observation instrument can be the starting point for a collegial conversation about these expectations, beginning with the pre-observation conference and lasting throughout the feedback process (Sullivan & Glanz, 2005; Tang & Chow, 2007).

In order for this process to be effective, the standards and ratings in the observation instruments must be clearly delineated and accurately described (Marshall, 2005; Tang & Chow, 2007; Toch & Rothman, 2008; Webb & Norton, 2009). When this is not the case, the selection

of a rating becomes subjective (Toch & Rothman, 2008; Webb & Norton, 2009). Several authors (Marshall, 2005; Toch & Rothman, 2008; Webb & Norton, 2009) suggest that rubrics provide the depth of information needed by both evaluators and evaluatees. Furthermore, Marshall (2005) suggested that rubrics are “more clearly ‘judgmental,’ forcing the principal to give the teacher clear feedback with respect to a standard” (p. 735). Rubrics can also help solve the problem of inflated ratings (Marshall, 2005) and the tendency of some evaluators to rate a person the same on all standards based on an overall impression of the person’s effectiveness (Webb & Norton, 2009).

One state that has changed its evaluation instrument to a rubric format is North Carolina (McREL, 2009). The rubric provides information on what constitutes each rating, giving teachers the information they need to develop their own goals for professional development and providing the kind of conversation starter that can encourage growth (New Teacher Center, 2009). Although teachers must be fully engaged in this process, the supervisor will need to take the lead in ensuring that teacher evaluation is not just about the instrument but focuses, instead, on growth (Peterson, 1995; Sullivan & Glanz, 2005).

The Principal’s Role in Teacher Evaluation: The Good, the Bad, and the Reality

Spears (1953) said that the role of the principal as supervisor of instruction has been described as a comparison of good – the compassionate servant who seeks to build upon the expertise of teachers to improve the education of students – versus bad – the authoritarian leader whom Spears describes as a “bully with ulterior motives” (p. 442). His premise was that such a dichotomy was fine for discussions of theory, but that there should be added a “third character, *common practice*” (Spears, 1953, p. 442), the reality of the effective principal, which lies

somewhere in between. In the years since his observations on instructional supervision, the discussion has continued in a similar vein.

Several authors (Cooper et al., 2005; Hazi & Arredondo Rucinski, 2009; Leithwood, Begley, & Cousins, 1990; Nelson & Sassi, 2005) discussed the conflicting roles of principals. Hazi and Arredondo Rucinski (2009) explained that while the roles of supervisor and evaluator are treated as separate and distinct by researchers, “practitioners believe them to be synonymous” (p. 3). Such role conflict is evident in the expectations placed on principals that range from leadership to management and from mentor to evaluator (Cooper et al., 2005). Even though their role as evaluators give principals the unique perspective needed to truly identify areas for growth (Cooper et al., 2005), this duality of roles can inhibit the ability of principals to use teacher evaluation as a professional development activity because “their formal role as teachers' evaluators is always in the background and dramatically colors their capacity to mentor” (Nelson & Sassi, 2005, p. 58). Astor's (2005) case study of an effective high school confirmed this difficulty; although the principal made an overt effort to increase the level of trust so that the teachers would be able to participate more fully in conversations about classroom observations and the majority of the teachers at that school reported that these conversations led to improved instruction, 40% still perceived the process to be evaluative in nature.

Illustrating the significance of the principal's role in ensuring effective instruction, Sullivan and Glanz (2005) compared the role of the principal to that of the teacher in the classroom – “a mentor, inspirer, and a facilitator of learning” (p. 162). To do this, the supervisor can use teacher evaluation processes to encourage collegial relationships (Sullivan & Glanz, 2005) and reflective dialogue (Blasé & Blasé, 2001) in an atmosphere of safety and mutual trust and respect (Acheson & Gall, 1997, 2003; Astor, 2005; Barnett, 2006; Blasé & Blasé, 2001;

Danielson & McGreal, 2000; Garth-Young, 2007; Giliya, 2006; Glickman et al., 2010; Gregoire, 2009; Hirsch, 2009b; McGrath, 1995, 2007; Oliva et al., 2009; Ovando & Harris, 1993; Ponticell & Zepeda, 2004; Quinn, 2002; Stronge et al., 2008; Sullivan & Glanz, 2005; Tellez, 2008; Wang & Day, 2002). In a study conducted with secondary teachers, Welsh-Treglia (2002) found that one way to increase a sense of trust was through the use of positive feedback, however Ebmeier (2003) found that feelings of trust and confidence in the principal are not necessarily formed due to actions that the principal takes during the evaluation process but are dependent, rather, on “the extent to which teachers believe the principal is interested in and committed to supporting teaching” (p. 135). This seems to align with the statement made by Ponticell and Zepeda (2004) that a trusting relationship cannot exist when the evaluation process is viewed as “an empty process or as retribution or manipulation” (p. 53). As Duke and Stiggins (1986) asserted, for teacher evaluation to lead to teacher improvement, “there must be an obvious commitment to growth from the top” (p. 37).

Instructional leadership can have a positive impact on student achievement (Anthes, 2005; Cotton, 2003; Glanz et al., 2007; Hallinger & Heck, 1996; Huffman, Hipp, Pankake, & Moller, 2001; Leithwood et al., 1990; Marzano et al., 2005; Nordheim, 2006; Stronge et al., 2008; Youngblood, 1994). In reviewing research on school success, Marzano (2003) stated that “leadership could be considered the single most important aspect of effective school reform,” asserting that research shows strong linkage between school leadership and “the attitudes of teachers, the classroom practices of teachers, [and] ... students' opportunity to learn” (p. 172). Indeed, Youngblood (1994) stated that the principal is the one primarily responsible for “the quality of education in the school” (p. 56). While individual teachers may excel without effective instructional leadership, such leadership is needed to create “a school that values and

continually strives to achieve an exceptional education for all students” (Quinn, 2002, p. 461).

In a report on the influence of leadership on student learning, Leithwood et al. (2004) wrote that “leadership is second only to classroom instruction among all school-related factors that contribute to what students learn at school” (p. 5), confirming what Spears (1953) wrote many years ago: “Those who enter the field of supervision carry a heavy responsibility; they must not take it lightly. Supervision is and always will be the key to the high instructional standards of America's public schools” (p. 462).

The principal’s role in improving student achievement is indirect (Hallinger & Heck, 1996; Quinn, 2002). However, this is not a reason for concern; leadership is, by definition, the ability to achieve goals through the efforts of others (Hallinger & Heck, 1996). Teachers in Lansman’s (2006) study indicated that “the administrator's supervision of instruction and additional support and feedback... improved instructional practice” (pp. 97-98). Teachers specifically appreciated the fact that the principal was an “accessible leader who gave positive feedback and support ... [who] empowered [teachers] to try new ideas without negative consequences” (Lansman, 2006, p. 108). In two other studies, teachers listed the principal’s accessibility and visibility (Kelly, 2006; Nordheim, 2006) and holding high standards for both teachers and students (Kelly, 2006) as factors leading to school success.

Just as the manager-employee relationship is vital to productivity and longevity in business (Buckingham & Coffman, 1999), a key element that affects the ability of the principal to impact school improvement and teacher growth is the quality of the principal-teacher relationship (Moller & Pankake, 2006). Beers (2006) suggested that for principals to both initiate and maintain continuous improvement, they must value the contributions of the teachers as professionals. In the words of Spears (1953),

The supervisor realizes that helping teachers is first dependent upon appreciating their achievements, their ideas and ideals, and their attitudes and abilities. Inspiration in this relationship is a two-way process. The supervisor who receives no inspiration from the ideas and actions of teachers cannot expect the teachers to turn to him for it. The true supervisory relationship is a warm mutual understanding and respect. (p. 447)

To be truly effective, principals need to take time to listen and ask questions (Moller & Pankake, 2006) and encourage teachers to reflect on their practice (Acheson & Gall, 2003; Williamson & Blackburn, 2009). Stronge et al. (2008) asserted that one of “the most powerful tools for school improvement and effectiveness that the principal has at his or her fingertips” is personnel evaluation (p. 83) and Rockoff (2004) stated that “raising teacher quality may be a key instrument in improving student outcomes” (p. 251). Thus, one way the principal can impact student achievement is to improve the teacher evaluation process (Schmoker, 2006).

Problems with Teacher Evaluation

Danielson and McGreal (2000) discussed the dual purposes of teacher evaluation, describing the summative function as one of “quality assurance” (p. 8) and the formative function as “professional development” (p. 8), stating that most educators see the latter as the ideal purpose for education. Toch and Rothman (2008) also indicated that teacher evaluation is of its greatest value when used in a formative manner for the improvement of instruction, but Teddlie et al. (2003), in a study of teacher evaluation in five countries, found that rarely to be the case. In discussing the potential of teacher evaluation to ensure the quality of teachers and help them grow professionally, Danielson (2001) stated that “previous evaluation systems ... have largely failed to achieve either goal: Evaluation is either neglected altogether or conducted in a highly negative environment with low levels of trust” (p. 15). Unfortunately, the literature on

teacher evaluation is peppered with such discouraging comments. Schmoker (2006) and Marshall (2005) described typical evaluation practices as ineffective, with Schmoker describing evaluation as having “nowhere to go but up” (p. 137) and Marshall stating that they “don’t carry much weight” (p. 728). Typical teacher evaluation has been called “a time-wasting hassle -- an activity which has little connection with the really important goals of education” (Hawley, 1982, p. 1) and a meaningless activity (Astor, 2005; Danielson, 2001; DuFour & Eaker, 1992; Giliya, 2006; Robles, 2007; Zepeda & Ponticell, 1998), with Danielson describing it as “a meaningless exercise, endured by both teachers and evaluators” (p. 12). Several authors assert that teacher evaluation is perceived as something that is done *to* teachers (Danielson, 2001; Peterson, 2000; Reitzug, 1997) and describe teachers as passive participants in the process (Danielson & McGreal, 2000; Howard & McColskey, 2001; Wang & Day, 2002). Some of the most often cited problems with teacher evaluations appear to fall into one of four categories: the focus of the evaluation, the amount and type of data, the processes and instruments, and the type and method of feedback.

Focus of the Evaluation

One of the major problems with teacher evaluation is its focus on administrative outcomes. Acheson and Gall (2003) stated that “supervision arises from a need of the supervisor, rather than from a need felt by the teacher” (p. 6). Peterson (2000) indicated that teachers generally do not want to be evaluated and, according to Webster (1994), much of the resistance from teachers is a result of fear. As Peterson stated

Extensive interview studies of teachers show that they do not want to be evaluated, do not feel they need it to improve, or do not believe that it can be done. As it stands, evaluation is a threat to their livelihood and an intrusion on their time; they do not want or use the

results of evaluation. No one wants to be made to look bad at doing something he or she cares about. (p. 30)

As Webb and Norton (2009) indicated, “unless properly conducted, it [evaluation] can also become a source of controversy and low morale” (p. 219).

Even though improvement of instruction is often the stated goal, teacher evaluation as practiced is frequently described as perfunctory (Davis et al., 2002; Ponticell & Zepeda, 2004; Sinnema & Robinson, 2007; Zepeda & Ponticell, 1998) – something done just to satisfy a requirement (Davis et al., 2002; DuFour & Eaker, 1992; Hawley, 1982; Loup & Ellett, 1997; Robles, 2007; Sinnema & Robinson, 2007; Stronge et al., 2008; Toch & Rothman, 2008; Wang & Day, 2002; Webster, 1994) or check for “minimally acceptable performance” (Milanowski & Heneman, 2001, p. 197). Toch and Rothman (2008) went so far as to call typical teacher evaluation processes “superficial [and] capricious” (p. 1) and Webster (1994) said that some principals treat it as “a necessary evil that must be tolerated for brief periods” (p. 182).

Sinnema and Robinson (2007) conducted three related studies, one of which involved a review of evaluation instruments from 17 elementary and middle schools in New Zealand; they listed “the perfunctory and compliance-oriented nature of teacher evaluation in these schools [and] a tendency to focus on satisfying requirements” (pp. 337-338) as one of the reasons for a lack of emphasis on “the teaching-learning relationship” (p. 337). Stronge et al. (2008) indicated that conducting evaluations merely for the purpose of completing required forms was a waste of time. Another undesired outcome of such evaluations is that neither participant gains much, nor is the process valued (Zepeda & Ponticell, 1998).

Wang and Day (2002) found that when the primary focus of teacher evaluation was to satisfy legal requirements, the “unequal power relationship bet the principal/supervisor and the

teacher caused numerous tensions between them” (Wang & Day, 2002, p. 13). This emphasis on legal requirements creates a “highly directive form of supervision” (Acheson & Gall, 2003, p. 7), leading to what several authors (Danielson & McGreal, 2000; Glickman et al., 2009; Ponticell & Zepeda, 2004) describe as a hierarchical relationship between the evaluator and the evaluatees.

Emphasis on the legal requirements of supervision and evaluation places principals in a hierarchical position over teachers. ... If accountability-based evaluation systems continue to focus principals’ and teachers’ attention on complying with steps set by law, and if fulfilling the steps continues to be more important than the process of adult learning required to improve teaching and learning, then there is little hope that supervision and evaluation will be perceived by teachers or principals as anything more than a perfunctory, compliance-centered process where both principals and teachers deliver the required show. (Ponticell & Zepeda, pp. 52, 54)

Reitzug (1997) discussed the problems that result when this type of hierarchical relationship exists in an evaluator/evaluatee relationship. After reviewing textbooks on instructional supervision, Reitzug (1997) reported that “the analysis yielded images that primarily portrayed the principal as expert and superior, the teacher as deficient and voiceless, teaching as fixed technology, and supervision as a discrete intervention” (p. 326).

Several possible reasons for this emphasis on simply satisfying the requirement for teacher evaluation include lack of time on the part of the administrator to devote to the process (Acheson & Gall, 2003; Davis et al., 2000; Garth-Young, 2007; Kimball, 2002; McCue & Burdick, 1956; Milanowski & Heneman, 2001; Painter, 2000a, 2000b; Spears, 1953; Stronge et al., 2008), a lack of skill (Milanowski & Heneman, 2001), a perceived lack of support from district administrators should a teacher need to be dismissed (Painter, 2000a), and even a lack of

inclination (Spears, 1953). Another factor that may lend itself to this devaluing of teacher evaluations is a shortage of qualified teachers to fill positions should any action be taken to remove ineffective teachers from the classroom (Teddle et al., 2003).

Another way that teacher evaluations have a primarily administrative focus is when the emphasis is on summative outcomes, often to the exclusion of formative outcomes. “Teacher evaluation typically has been designed as a personnel action, not as a tool for instructional improvement” (Goldrick, 2002, p. 2), and Toch and Rothman (2008) stated that “teacher evaluation systems throughout public education ... often don't even directly address the quality of instruction, much less measure students' learning” (p. 1). Reitzug (1997) underscored the lack of opportunity for professional growth in typical teacher evaluation processes when he explained that the process is often viewed as a discrete intervention – one “with a specific beginning and ending time” (p. 336) – where the participants view evaluation as an event rather than an ongoing process.

Even though one of the oft-stated purposes of teacher evaluation is an administrative goal – quality assurance – this goal is often not achieved; poor teachers are rarely dismissed (Goldrick, 2002; VanSciver, 1990). Frequently, the majority of teachers are rated at high levels even in schools where student achievement is not as highly rated (Bradshaw, 2002; Myers, 1994; New Teacher Project, 2007, 2009a, 2009b). In effect, many teachers have come to expect high ratings as a matter of course (Danielson & McGreal, 2000; Weisberg et al., 2009), which is sometimes called the *Lake Wobegon Effect*, based on line, “and all the children are above average” (Keillor, n.d., The news from Lake Wobegon, ¶1) used by Garrison Keillor on his radio show to end stories about events in the fictional town of Lake Wobegon (Danielson & McGreal, 2000; Tucker, 1997). However, the problem of inflated ratings is not unique to the field of

education. In studying evaluations in other sectors, Edwards and Ewen (1996) found that supervisor's ratings of employees were likely to be inflated and "show less distinction among criteria [and] among people," (p. 39).

The New Teacher Project (2009b) reviewed ratings given in the Chicago Public Schools and reported that although 66% of schools did not make Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP) in the 2007-08 school year, 91% of teachers were rated *Superior* or *Excellent*, and less than 1% were rated *Unsatisfactory*. AYP is the standard set by the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (2002) for the amount by which the overall scores and the scores of certain subgroups of a school should increase from the prior year. During the same year, however, 56% of teachers and 77% of administrators agreed that there were poor-performing teachers in their schools (New Teacher Project, 2009b). In 2007, the New Teacher Project had reported that 69 of 87 Chicago schools identified as failing did not rate any teachers as *Unsatisfactory* during the 2003-2005 school years and that, of 36,000 ratings given between 2003 and 2006, 0.3% of teachers received a rating of *Unsatisfactory*. There were similar findings for other large districts; in 2008-09, only 0.3% of teachers in the Pueblo City Schools and 1.4% of teachers in the Denver Public Schools in Colorado, 0.3% of teachers in the Toledo Public Schools in Ohio, and 0% of teachers in the Springdale Public Schools in Arkansas received a rating of *Unsatisfactory* (New Teacher Project, 2009a). Turque (2010) reported that prior to recent changes in teacher evaluation policy, teachers in the District of Columbia Public Schools were accustomed to receiving high ratings in spite of "one of the weakest academic records of any urban school system in the United States" (Grading the teachers, ¶3) and Myers (1994) reported that 99% of Louisiana teachers in the previous 12 years had received satisfactory ratings. Loup et al. (1996) reported that almost 80% of superintendents in responding districts replied that only between one and three percent of

teachers received an unsatisfactory rating; just under 6% of superintendents indicated that the rate of teachers receiving unsatisfactory ratings was 5% or greater.

The number of teacher dismissals, however, is even lower. Several authors (Farkas, Johnson, & Duffett, 2003; Menuey, 2005; Tucker, 1997; Webster, 1994; Weisberg et al., 2009) found what Menuey (2005) called a “gross disparity between the prevalence of incompetent teachers and their rates of dismissal” (p. 310), stating that this situation “is truly staggering” (p. 310). Although Tucker (1997) offered several reasons why principals may not pursue dismissals when warranted, such as a desire to avoid conflict, lack of skills, lack of time, lack of resources and support, she suggested that the “discrepancy between the extent of the problem of teacher incompetence and the administrative response seems to indicate a dereliction of duty” (p. 118).

For example, Tucker (1997) analyzed survey results from 112 principals in Virginia and found that the number of teachers these principals indicated were “incompetent” (p. 108) amounted to approximately 5%, with actual responses ranging from 0 to 23%. These same principals, however, only gave unsatisfactory ratings to a total of 2.65% of teachers, with slightly more than half of those being tenured teachers (Tucker, 1997). Regarding employment decisions, Tucker found that approximately half of the probationary teachers who were identified as poor performers were nonrenewed but was unable to report what occurred with the other probationary teachers. Tucker (1997) also reported that “dismissal was recommended for only 7% of the total number of identified incompetent tenured teachers” (p. 111), which represented a mean rate of 0.10% of teachers overall. Other actions taken included remediation, reassignment, or a recommendation to resign or retire (Tucker, 1997).

In a survey of over 200 elementary teachers, Menuey (2005) included a question about administrator response to incompetent teachers. Although survey participants had added a

number of write-in responses to one of the other survey questions, this question garnered very few additional teacher-added responses; of those, the one most often listed was *ignoring* – failing to deal with the issue at all (Menuey, 2005). In addition, Menuey selected seven teachers for interviews, and all seven indicated that their administrators used this same approach. “It was apparent that the strategy of ignoring is a common though ineffective one that teachers feel needs to change in order to deal with incompetence in a more appropriate manner” (Menuey, 2005, p. 317).

Ehrgott, Henderson-Sparks, and Sparks (1993) conducted surveys in California where principals reported that an average of 10.8% of their teachers were not performing at satisfactory levels. However, dismissing teachers in California is difficult and rarely pursued (Dawson & Billingsley, 2000; EdSource, 2005). Dawson & Billingsley reported the percentage of tenured teachers dismissed in California in 1998-99 was likely less than one tenth of one percent. Painter (2000c) surveyed principals in Oregon, asking how many teachers they had supervised who should have been dismissed. “All were able to identify at least one teacher in this category. The principals averaged 8.3 years of experience as principals, and during that time they identified an average of 2.5 teachers who ‘definitely should have been removed from their positions’” (Painter, 2000c, p. 258). According to Weisberg et al. (2009)

Despite uniformly positive evaluation ratings, teachers and administrators both recognize ineffective teaching in their schools. In fact, 81% of administrators and 58% of teachers say there is a tenured teacher in their school who is performing poorly, and 43% of teachers say there is a tenured teacher who should be dismissed for poor performance. Troublingly, the percentages are higher in high-poverty schools. But district records confirm the scarcity of formal dismissals; at least half of the districts studied have not

dismissed a single non-probationary teacher for poor performance in the past five years.

(p. 6)

One district that has recently made sweeping changes in their practices for teacher evaluation and dismissal is the District of Columbia Public Schools (District of Columbia Public Schools [DCPS], n.d.; Public School Forum of North Carolina 2009, 2010). In the fall of 2009, DCPS began using an evaluation system called IMPACT, which involved multiple observations from both administrators and master teachers on a new framework and factored in student achievement data for teachers of tested grades and subjects (DCPS, 2010; Public School Forum of North Carolina, 2009). At the end of the first year of implementation, 165 teachers were dismissed for performance and an additional 737 were put on notice that their performance needed to be improved (Public School Forum of North Carolina, 2010; Turque, 2010). The *Washington Post* reported that DCPS Chancellor Michelle Rhee “said that ... no teachers were fired for lack of effectiveness in 2006, the year before she was named chancellor” (Turque, 2010, Grading the teachers, ¶2).

Hazi and Arredondo Rucinski (2009) predicted that states and school systems would begin to make changes in teacher evaluation systems to increase teacher accountability, but they cautioned that “evaluation is flawed, contested, and problematic” (p. 3) and that “to try to make teachers more accountable through this highly ritualistic procedure ... will further complicate a flawed practice” (p. 4). Because the DCPS IMPACT system has been in place for little more than one year, there will likely be litigation and other obstacles to be overcome before the widespread results are known (Public School Forum of North Carolina, 2010; Turque, 2010). However, other systems may not be taking a wait-and-see approach. For example, in the New Haven Public Schools in Connecticut, public school officials and union representatives recently

agreed to include test scores in their teacher evaluation system; the new policy was effective in July of 2010 (Schachter, 2010).

However, the issue of removing ineffective teachers is not a new one. One might not be surprised to find an article in the *New York Times* today that complained of incompetent teachers being allowed to continue teaching, but an article from 1936 quoted the superintendent as saying there were “at least several hundred incompetent teachers ... in the system” (Bernstein as cited in Weisberg et al., 2009, p. 2). This is clearly an issue that garners attention. Webster (1994) stated

One of the most frustrating situations in all of education occurs when one or more teachers in a school have acquired tenure and permanent status by default. The inadequacies of such teachers usually are known to everyone at the school: other teachers, parents, and---yes, even the students, sometimes. (p. 205)

Allowing poor teachers to remain in their classrooms has multiple negative consequences (Beers, 2006; Fuhr, 1993; Menuey, 2005; Painter, 2000b; Peterson & Peterson, 2006). An obvious consequence involves the students. Painter (2000b) pointed out that although teaching likely has no larger percentage of poor performers than other professions, the issue of poor teaching is imperative because of the sheer number of students affected and their lack of ability to take any action to improve the situation. For example, Fuhr indicated that allowing poor teachers to remain in the classroom leads to increased dropout rates. This issue may also be represented as even more dire than it truly is because there seems to be an expectation that “nothing short of perfection is acceptable in the teaching ranks” (Painter, 2000c, p. 254).

Another consideration is the effect on the teachers in the school who are performing well (Beers, 2006; Fuhr, 1993; Peterson & Peterson, 2006). Beers stated that, even though dismissals take time and effort, failing to follow through causes problems with other teachers. “Teachers who

are getting the job done don't want someone next door who isn't" (Beers, 2006, p. 124). It is a matter of pride; teachers cannot be proud of their good work when their school is not perceived as doing well and when the public knows that the school allows teachers to continue teaching (Beers, 2006; Fuhr, 1993). In addition, teachers who are doing well are unlikely to accept suggestions and feedback from a principal who they believe is not making an effort to improve marginal teachers (Fuhr, 1993). Failing to deal with this issue also creates problems with other stakeholders such as school boards, superintendents, and parents (Fuhr, 1993; Peterson & Peterson, 2006).

Even though few teachers are actually fired, principals and school districts still tend to perform teacher evaluations as if the primary purpose is for documentation leading to dismissal (Bradshaw, 2002). In 1985, Ellett and Garland (1987) conducted a study using the Teacher Evaluation Practices Survey (TEPS), with 80 of the nation's 100 largest school districts participating in the survey and 30 districts providing copies of teacher evaluation policy and/or teacher evaluation instruments. This study was revisited in 1995 (Loup et al., 1996) with 68 of the 100 largest districts responding. Ellett and Garland (1987) reviewed 27 policies on teacher evaluation, finding that "25 included a statement of philosophy, purpose, or goals as a basis to the evaluation plan. The most prevalent theme ... was the belief that teacher evaluation results can improve instruction" (p. 80). However, when the superintendents were surveyed about the uses of evaluation in actual practice, the two highest rated uses were focused on the lowest performing teachers; 92.5% of superintendents listed remediation for poor-performing teachers and 90.0% listed dismissal (Ellett & Garland, 1987). Of these 27 policies, 26 included processes for teacher improvement, but these were limited to "those teachers whose teaching performances were judged as below standard. Provisions for the continuing professional development of

teachers who perform satisfactorily were not routinely made” (Ellett & Garland, 1987, p. 82). In the 1995 study, remediation and dismissal were still the highest rated uses for teacher evaluation, with remediation listed by 88.2% of superintendents and dismissal by 86.8% (Loup et al., 1996). Duke and Stiggins (1986) stated that evaluators tend to focus on the small percentage of teachers who are not performing.

If our goal is to improve instruction and we rely only on strategies that influence very few teachers (which we often do), we are unlikely to accomplish overall gains in teaching performance. The point is not that accountability systems lack value. They serve an important purpose. But alone they touch too few teachers. We need evaluation systems that promote the development of all teachers, not just those having difficulty. (Duke & Stiggins, 1986, p. 15)

Several other authors also suggested that focusing teacher evaluation efforts on dismissal is simply not the best way to improve our schools (DuFour & Eaker, 1992; Duke & Stiggins, 1986; Fuhr, 1993; Iwanicki, 2001; Koops & Winsor, 2006; Marshall, 2005; Sclan, 1994; Toch & Rothman, 2008; Weisberg et al., 2009; Williamson & Blackburn, 2009). To do so is a “missed opportunity” (Koops & Winsor, 2006, p. 62). According to Toch and Rothman (2008) , “principals use evaluations to help teachers improve their performance as rarely as they give unsatisfactory ratings” (p. 3). “The first thing an administrator needs to consider is whether the objective of the observation and conference is to promote professional growth or to gather documentation that will support a decision to terminate the teacher. Professional development – clearly the more beneficial purpose of evaluation – regrettably has less formal support in schools” (Beers, 2006, p. 92). Teacher evaluation should focus on “maximizing teacher growth and effectiveness” (Weisberg et al., 2009, p. 7), “promote professional excellence, [and] improve

student learning” (Koops & Winsor, 2006, p. 61). As Williamson and Blackburn pointed out, to improve instruction, principals must work with all teachers, not just those who are the least effective. “In today's world, we should not build professional employee appraisal systems to fire people. We should build systems to help them develop and increase the productivity of their organizations” (Iwanicki, 2001, p. 59).

Amount and Type of Data

Other problems with teacher evaluation involve the use of limited data. One limiting factor is the amount of time evaluators can and do spend in observing teachers. Over 20 years ago, Duke and Stiggins (1986) warned that, while such limited visits might fulfill legal requirements, “they will not supply the information needed to promote improvement in competent teachers” (p. 29). It appears that little has changed since then. Weisberg et al. (2009) reported that evaluations are typically “short and infrequent” (p. 6) and Marshall (2005) and Stronge et al. (2008) reported that they are based on observations of a very small portion of a teacher’s total instruction, possibly as little as one tenth to one half of one percent of the teacher’s total teaching time. Schools are complex organizations (Davis et al., 2002) and teaching is a complex activity (Danielson, 2001; Diamond & Handi, 2002; Sullivan & Glanz, 2005; Wang & Day, 2002); thus, several short observations are not sufficient to capture a true picture of what is occurring daily in the classroom (Black, 2003; Danielson, 2001; Diamond & Handi, 2002; Duke & Stiggins, 1986; Goldrick, 2002; McCann et al., 2005; Peterson, 2000; Stronge et al., 2008).

In addition, “teacher observations often fail to capture the real quality of the teaching that occurs daily in the classrooms of good teachers” (Webster, 1994, p. 184). The lessons that are observed are usually not typical—either due to the teacher teaching differently (Danielson &

McGreal, 2000; Marshall, 2005, 2009; Ponticell & Zepeda, 2004; Robles, 2007; Stronge et al., 2008; Webster, 1994; Zepeda & Ponticell, 1998) or the students' changing their behavior for the benefit of the observer (Marshall, 2005, 2009) or simply because they were distracted by the observer's presence in the room (Zepeda & Ponticell, 1998).

Another limiting factor in teacher observations is the lack of involvement by the teachers. As expressed earlier, teachers are often passive recipients of evaluation processes (Danielson & McGreal, 2000; Howard & McColskey, 2001; Wang & Day, 2002). Specifically, Wang and Day (2002) reported that the teachers in their study indicated that they do not often receive pre-observation conferences, which puts teachers "in a vulnerable position for the observers' subjective judgment" (p. 12). In addition, the lack of a prior conference can also strain the evaluator/evaluate relationship (Beers, 2006) and produce "observational data [that] are highly subjective and vague" (Acheson & Gall, 2003, p. 7).

After the evaluation, teachers sometimes report that they do not have the opportunity for a post-observation conference (Clayton, 2008; Milanowski & Heneman, 2001; Wang & Day, 2002); however, even when post-observation conferences are held, the teachers may simply be recipients of information from the principal (Acheson & Gall, 1997; Danielson & McGreal, 2000; Ponticell & Zepeda, 2004) rather than having the opportunity to present data or artifacts to demonstrate competencies that were not in evidence during the observation. This is what Danielson and McGreal (2000) described as "top-down communication ... [in which] the teachers don't do anything" (p. 5).

A final limitation on the data used for teacher evaluations is a lack of focus on student learning (Goldrick, 2002; Resnick, 2004; Sanders & Horn, 1998; Sanders & Rivers, 1996;

Sinnema & Robinson, 2007; Toch & Rothman, 2008). Sinnema and Robinson (2007) studied teacher evaluation instruments in New Zealand and reported these findings.

Neither the evaluation tools themselves, nor the way they are used in teacher evaluation discussions, encourages inquiry into the impact of teaching on student learning. This is puzzling, given that the espoused intention of teacher evaluation in New Zealand, as in the United States and the United Kingdom, is to improve teaching and learning. (p. 337).

This focus on teacher practice rather than student learning is reflected in the titles of many evaluation instruments (Ellett & Teddlie, 2003). For example, the prior instrument used in North Carolina was the *Teacher Performance Appraisal Instrument* (NCDPI, 2004) while the prior instrument used in Georgia was the similarly titled *Teacher Performance Assessment Instrument* (Rothenberg & Hessling, 1990); however, both states have recently adopted new instruments (NCSBE, 2008; Georgia Department of Education, 2010). Other examples of statewide evaluation instruments with similar titles include the *Delaware Performance Appraisal System* (Delaware Department of Education, 2010) and the *Mississippi Teacher Appraisal* (Mississippi Department of Education, 2003).

However, the titles of the instruments alone do not tell the whole story. In a case study involving 11 teachers from three schools, Sinnema and Robinson (2007) tried to determine if there was a connection between teacher evaluation and student learning as evidenced by the discussions held during the post-observation conference. Sinnema and Robinson only found one teacher who stated that the person who observed, in this case, another teacher, discussed student learning outcomes during the post-observation conference. While they found that the teachers were generally supportive of the idea of discussing student data during observation conferences, it was not found to be “common practice” (Sinnema & Robinson, 2007, p. 334). In a separate

study involving eight schools, Sinnema and Robinson investigated professional goals that were used to set the focus for the teachers' evaluations. Their findings indicated that "less than five percent of goals (11 out of 244) were found to refer to student outcomes. The vast majority (90%) focused, instead, on elements of teachers' practice" (Sinnema & Robinson, 2007, p. 335).

Processes and Instruments

Another problem with typical teacher evaluations concerns the processes and observation instruments used. One specific area of concern is the content of the evaluation instruments; there is often a lack of connection between teacher evaluation and student learning in the objectives and elements (Ellett & Teddlie, 2003). Ellett and Garland (1987), in a review of evaluation instruments from 80 large school districts, found that most of the instruments "seemed to encompass at least some of the teacher behaviors supported by research on teacher effectiveness... . Few instruments, however, appeared to have been designed to specifically reflect" (p. 81) this research, and many included behaviors "that were not consistent with or derived from the research literature" (p. 84). In a follow-up study of 68 districts, Loup et al. (1996) found similar teacher behaviors, reporting that these criteria "did not seem to reflect recent, national views (i.e., national curriculum standards) of critical components of teaching and learning" (p. 216). Sinnema and Robinson (2007) studied the evaluation policies and instruments of 17 different schools in New Zealand and found that, of the 503 indicators listed, only 3% focused directly on student learning and another 3% focused indirectly on student learning. The remaining 94% of indicators were not related to student learning (Sinnema & Robinson, 2007). Since the evaluation policies from these 17 schools had listed student achievement as one of the purposes of teacher evaluation, this showed that "the tools that they developed were not aligned to this purpose" (Sinnema & Robinson, 2007, p. 330). It is no

surprise, then, that they reported that teachers and administrators saw “little connection between scores on teacher evaluation reports and teaching quality” (Sinnema & Robinson, 2007, p. 322).

In an early study of the North Carolina TPAI, Stacey, Holdzkom, and Kuligowski (1989) found that while both teachers and evaluators were satisfied that the instrument provided accurate descriptions of teaching performance, these same groups were not convinced that the evaluation process would lead to improved instruction. In a more recent study, Bradshaw (2002) reported that only 40% of teachers indicated that the teacher evaluation process had a positive impact on student learning and only 32.8% of teachers indicated that it had a positive impact on student achievement.

In addition to issues of focus as described earlier, another area of concern is the format of the instrument. Many evaluation instruments are simply checklists of desired teacher behaviors (Acheson & Gall, 2003; Danielson & McGreal, 2000; DuFour & Eaker, 1992; Peterson, 2000; Ponticell & Zepeda, 2004; Stronge & Tucker, 1999; Zepeda & Ponticell, 1998) or a combination of a checklist and “short narratives” (Sullivan & Glanz, 2005, p. 105). Sullivan and Glanz warn that such checklists often include too many items, which causes frustration. DuFour and Eaker stated that, because teacher evaluation may often be little more than just such a checklist upon which teachers are rated as either having passed or failed, “it is small wonder that teachers tend to regard such a system as either threatening or meaningless” (p. 97). Sclan (1994) called this traditional approach to teacher evaluation “behavioristic” (p. 20) in that such supervision tends to view instruction as needing to fit within a specific format. “Evaluation systems that emphasize discrete bits of behavior may compromise teachers' judgment, which reduces opportunities for capacity building” (Sclan, 1994, p. 20). Danielson and McGreal (2000) discussed the problems with evaluation systems that focus on a list of “observable behaviors” (p. 3), stating that, while

they reflected what was known about teaching and learning at the time they were developed, they do not reflect the current emphasis on problem solving and higher-order thinking. In all, this type of evaluation causes teachers to spend time attempting to satisfy specific directives rather than focusing on learning in their classrooms (Danielson & McGreal, 2000; Sclan, 1994).

The processes used to evaluate teachers can also be an area of concern. As mentioned earlier, there may not be a pre-observation conference, giving the evaluator little opportunity to consider what data should be gathered and leaving the teacher with no idea of what the evaluator expects or the criteria for the evaluation (Acheson & Gall, 2003). Collins (2004) found that teachers in private secondary school where there was no written policy spelling out teacher evaluation processes “contended that lack of clarity created discord between the principal and teachers over the perception of the evaluation. ... Teachers complained that there was no 'standard criterion' as to who was to be evaluated, what was to be evaluated and what kind of instruments were to be used during the evaluation” (p. 47).

Although policy may be explicit regarding teacher evaluation processes, actual practice may not be faithful to these policy directives (Bradshaw, 2002; Collins, 2004; Davis et al., 2000; Duke & Stiggins, 1986; Gordon et al., 1995; Kimball, 2002; Lansman, 2006; Milanowski & Heneman, 2001; Painter, 2000b; Peterson & Peterson, 2006; Tunison, 2001; Wang & Day, 2002). For example, in a survey of over 4000 teachers in 21 North Carolina school districts, 27% of respondents indicated that they had not been observed even though at least one annual evaluation was required (Bradshaw, 2002). Tunison (2001) studied three schools in Canada to see if there was perceived to be alignment between policy and practice and found “few points of agreement” (p. 101). Further, Painter found that changes in policies and procedures are not sufficient to drive changes in practice.

Regarding faithful implementation of established evaluation processes, Kimball (2002) and Duke and Stiggins (1986) warned that skipping steps devalues the process in the eyes of the teachers. “Each shortcut increases the likelihood that teachers will not take the evaluation process seriously and, consequently, not derive maximum benefit from it” (Duke & Stiggins, 1986, p. 37). Kimball (2002) further stated that “inconsistencies may create questions of procedural fairness” (p. 262), which could hamper any efforts to improve instruction via the evaluation process.

Gordon et al. (1995) suggested that evaluators’ level of compliance with established evaluation procedures is related to the value they place on teacher evaluation as a method for improving instruction. Lansman (2006) suggested that the quality of training provided to evaluators is a determining factor, yet Painter (2000b) stated that training alone would not be sufficient; evaluators must believe that the processes will be effective. Regardless of the causes, the issue of faithful implementation of evaluation processes is vital because “no matter how technically accurate and detailed an evaluation procedure may be, ..., if supervisors won't use it, then we have accomplished nothing” (McGrath, 2007, p. D2).

Type and Method of Feedback

A final category of problems with teacher evaluation involves the level of feedback offered. Even though teacher evaluation is intended as a source of information on acceptable teacher performance for purposes such as celebrating excellence, removing ineffective teachers, or improving performance, Marshall (2005) stated that this does not occur because “many evaluation instruments allow principals to fudge teachers’ general status with an overall ‘satisfactory’ rating and a lot of verbiage” (p. 731). Too often, the feedback that teachers receive is generic and does not differentiate between teachers who are performing at high levels and

those who are in need of improvement (Danielson & McGreal, 2000; Tucker et al., 2003; Weisberg et al., 2009). This does not celebrate nor aid in the professional growth of excellent teachers (Darling-Hammond & Berry, 1998; Marshall, 2005; Weisberg et al., 2009) and, in fact, “tends to undermine the evaluation system’s credibility and devalue an authentically high rating” (Tucker et al., 2003, p. 586).

All too often, principals, when faced with the task of sharing constructive feedback with teachers, choose to use vague language (Acheson & Gall, 2003; Marshall, 2005; McGrath, 1995; Wang & Day, 2002; Weisberg et al., 2009). Such feedback doesn’t “answer the question teachers really care about (and often dread): How am I doing?” (Marshall, 2005, p. 731). McGrath (2007) succinctly describes this as a condition she calls “inarticulitis ... [in which the principal] has been hemming and hawing around the issue while trying to remain friendly and collegial” (p. 5). Unfortunately, the message is lost along the way (McGrath, 2007).

This lack of specific feedback regarding poor performance creates at least two major problems. First, it hampers any effort to remove ineffective teachers (Acheson & Gall, 2003; Farkas et al., 2003; McGrath, 2007; Webster, 1994). However, since the percentage of teachers dismissed for performance is quite low (Dawson & Billingsley, 2000; EdSource, 2005; Farkas et al., 2003; Menuey, 2005; Tucker, 1997; Webster, 1994; Weisberg et al., 2009), that effort may be better spent on improving instruction (DuFour & Eaker, 1992; Duke & Stiggins, 1986; Iwanicki, 2001; Koops & Winsor, 2006; Marshall, 2005; Sclan, 1994; Toch & Rothman, 2008; Weisberg et al., 2009). Unfortunately, the second major problem caused by the lack of specific feedback is that it fails to provide any real direction for instructional improvement (Acheson & Gall, 2003; Marshall, 2005; McGrath, 2007; Wang & Day, 2002; Weisberg et al., 2009; Wood, 1992).

There are several proposed reasons why administrators may have difficulty giving negative feedback. They may feel unprepared due to a lack of training on how to assist struggling teachers (Fuhr, 1993), or they may simply be trying to ensure that they are treating everyone fairly (McGrath, 2007). They may avoid dealing with the situation due to potential discomfort (Fuhr, 1993; McGrath, 2007) or out of concern that they may harm their working relationship with the teacher (McGrath, 2007) or create a disruption in the climate of the school (McGrath, 2007). Principals do not want to be perceived as the “bad guys” (Farkas et al., 2003, p. 34). They may hold back due to their own personal connection to the teacher or due to the teacher’s connections in the community (Farkas et al., 2003; Tucker, 1997). In Collins’ (2004) study, the principal was concerned that negative feedback would lead to a decrease in performance. Ultimately, principals may be concerned that it will create problems without netting any real benefit (McGrath, 2007) and avoid addressing concerns with tenured teachers, choosing to focus, instead, on teachers without tenure (McGrath, 2007; Webster, 1994). As Peterson and Peterson (2006) stated, “there are few other tasks in the work life of a principal that present the simultaneous feelings of initiative and procrastination, decisiveness and evasion, and hope and dread as those associated with teacher evaluation” (pp. 1-2).

When a principal’s attitude is authoritative, that can also have a negatively effect on feedback (Acheson & Gall, 2003; Beers, 2006; Wood, 1992). When the principal gives feedback in a directive fashion, it may be ignored by the teachers (Acheson & Gall, 2003) or cause them to feel dependent (Moller & Pankake, 2006) or helpless (Wood, 1992). Beers compared this type of supervision to the actions of a teacher who just wants to cover material rather than ensuring that students truly learn. When the supervisor is the provider of knowledge during the process, teachers may accept the directives of the administrator whether or not they see their merit or

actually intend to implement them (Barnett, 2006; Glickman et al., 2010). In a study of teacher perspectives, Barnett (2006) found that teachers in this situation had no “sense of ownership towards the change” (p. 183).

In addition to the attitude of the principal, the disposition the teacher brings to the evaluation process may also have an impact on the effectiveness of feedback. Teachers sometimes view teacher evaluation as punishment (Danielson & McGreal, 2000; Wang & Day, 2002; Zepeda & Ponticell, 1998) and may enter into an evaluation process with feelings of dread (McGrath, 2007; Payne & Hulme, 1988; Webster, 1994; Wood, 1992), suspicion (Stronge et al., 2008), or even hostility (Acheson & Gall, 2003). As Schlechty (1990) stated, “most educators view evaluation as a punitive tool used to demonstrate who is inadequate at doing what” (p. 112); as long as teacher evaluation “is perceived as inspection rather than as a source of professional development, teachers will resist it” (Acheson & Gall, 2003, p. 7). Acheson and Gall (2003) further stated that because teacher evaluation “tends to be unpleasant, interaction between supervisor and teacher is avoided or minimized ... [which] compounds the problem” (p. 7). The very fact that the process is evaluative hampers the ability of the teacher to gain from the experience (Nelson & Sassi, 2005). If teachers do not feel safe, they may not fully engage in dialogue during the conference, unwilling to share any of their own concerns for fear that these will be held against them in the final evaluation (Danielson & McGreal, 2000; Peterson, 2000; Wang & Day, 2002; Wood, 1992). Instructional improvement will be unlikely because teachers will be afraid to try new things or take risks (Danielson & McGreal, 2000; Wood, 1992).

Other problems with feedback also exist. Obviously, feedback cannot provide any benefit when it does not occur (Duke & Stiggins, 1986; Toch & Rothman, 2008; Tunison, 2001; Wang & Day, 2002; Zepeda & Ponticell, 1998). Zepeda and Ponticell (1998) found that teachers

surveyed had “signed off on evaluation reports with little or no discussion with supervisors” (p. 80) and Wang and Day reported that only a few of the teachers they surveyed indicated that they had a post-observation conference.

If the purpose of the post observation conference is to engage teachers to reflect on their teaching practices, to discuss alternatives and motivate them to improve their teaching performance, then failure to offer teachers an opportunity to discuss the observed lesson deprived these teachers of their involvement in the analysis of their own teaching, and ultimately an opportunity to learn and grow as professionals. (Wang & Day, 2002, p. 12)

Feedback can also be too limited to be of benefit. Milanowski and Heneman (2001) found that although the majority of the teachers piloting a new teacher evaluation process indicated that they had received feedback, the feedback tended to be positive, affirming the teacher’s performance, and did not include any areas for growth. Beers (2006) observed that post-observation conferences are often of limited benefit because they “occur in isolation” (p. 103); the only information discussed pertains to a single observation without following up on previous observations or recommendations, which “encourages a ‘this too shall pass’ mentality” (p. 103). Zepeda and Ponticell (1998) further warned that feedback may not be useful unless it addresses the “specific classroom context in which teaching occurred” (p. 81).

Summary

Overall, teacher evaluations have simply not been found to improve instruction (DuFour & Eaker, 1992; Marshall, 2005, 2009; Peterson, 2000; Stronge et al., 2008). As Peterson (2000) stated,

Teacher evaluation as practiced in the overwhelming majority of school districts in this country consists of wrong thinking and doing.... Teachers, for their part, put up with the

activity and continue to teach as they always have. Educators tell each other, and the public, that the purpose of evaluation is to improve teaching. Few seem to notice that evaluation does not improve practice, and both teachers and administrators continue in their ways in spite of the rhetoric of feedback for change. (p. 3)

Berry (2008) and Peterson asked why, since we have known for years that teacher evaluation is ineffective, we have not made changes. Principals often know of better practices but fail to use them (Lieberman & Miller, 1999; Tellez, 2008). Although Peterson suggested that it is difficult to change the status quo, Danielson (2001) stated that schools are beginning to change the way they use teacher evaluation so that it does improve teaching. Danielson and McGreal (2000) pointed out that recent teacher evaluation models were based on the information available at the time, however, now that more is known about how students learn, and now that more is expected in the way of student outcomes, teacher evaluation has to evolve. As Peterson and Peterson (2006) stated, “it is evident that teacher evaluation is a complex experience for which some continued clear thinking and improved practices are needed” (p. 2).

Teacher Evaluation Policy in North Carolina

Darling-Hammond (2000) named North Carolina as one of two states, along with Connecticut, that implemented a number of large-scale reforms in education beginning in the mid 1980s. There were gains in salaries and investments in professional development along with an increase in accountability through a state-wide testing program (Darling-Hammond, 2000). During this same time period, North Carolina also gave attention to the evaluation of teachers.

Current and Prior Policy

Although many point to the publication of *A Nation at Risk* in 1983 as one of the major catalysts for change in the evaluation of teachers, the North Carolina General Assembly had

already begun to address issues for reform in education, including that of teacher evaluation (Stacey et al., 1989). Despite the lack of a statewide protocol for evaluating teachers, the Tenure Act of 1971 called for local districts to seek methods for making decisions regarding tenure (Bradshaw, 1996, 2002). By 1978, the General Assembly was beginning to make a variety of educational policy changes, including teacher evaluation (Holdzkom, 1987; Stacey et al., 1989) and, by 1979, had required annual teacher evaluations (Bradshaw, 2002; Holdzkom, 1987) and requested that the North Carolina State Department of Public Instruction develop an instrument for teacher evaluation (Holdzkom, 1987). To address this mandate, a checklist of teacher behaviors was developed by gathering “consensual views on teachers' responsibilities” (Stacey et al., 1989, p. 79). This checklist was in use by 1981 and involved one annual observation, followed by a conference, for each teacher (Bradshaw 1996, 2002). However, there were some concerns with the reliability of the ratings given to teachers and with the summative focus of the process which was not perceived to be conducive to teacher improvement (Stacey et al., 1989). This led to the development of a new instrument, the TPAI, which was implemented in 1983 and in use statewide by 1985 (Bradshaw, 1996; NCDPI, 2004; Stacey et al., 1989). The TPAI was based on effective teaching research (Bradshaw, 1996, 2002; Holdzkom, 1987, 1991; Public Schools of North Carolina, n.d.-e) and included 28 elements of effective teaching categorized into five functions and an additional 10 elements in three additional functions designed to measure aspects of the teacher’s job outside of classroom teaching (Holdzkom, 1987; Stacey et al., 1989). The TPAS process brought about needed improvements in teacher evaluation such as requirements for observations and conferences, training for evaluators and teachers, and the establishment of “a common language on the subject of teaching effectiveness” (Bradshaw, 1996, p. 3). This process was designed to include both the formative and summative aspects of

teacher evaluation (Bradshaw, 1996; Stacey et al., 1989). Although NCDPI initially provided a high level of support and training, this support was limited in later years (Bradshaw, 1996).

In 1986, the NCSBE approved QP-C-003, *Policies and provisions governing performance appraisal system*, later changed to TCP-C-003, *Policies and Provisions Governing Professional Employee Evaluation*, which provided that all LEAs should evaluate all professional personnel; it specifically required the use of the TPAI for novice teachers unless the LEA used a locally identified, validated evaluation (NCSBE, 2001). By 1989, legislation also allowed local school districts to use a locally validated alternative evaluation for tenured teachers, and several LEAs took this opportunity to develop and implement alternative evaluation systems, but the TPAI was still used at some level in all districts (Bradshaw, 1996, 2002).

The next phase in the teacher evaluation process in North Carolina came as a result of the Excellent Schools Act of 1997, which led the NCSBE to adopt new teaching standards in 1998 (Bradshaw, 2002; Public Schools of North Carolina, n.d.-e). To address these changes, NCDPI initiated the development of new instruments which were revisions of the TPAI; this new process, called the TPAI-R, included an instrument designed for beginning teachers, the TPAI-BT, and one for experienced teachers, the TPAI-2000, and was implemented statewide in July of 2001 (Flowers, Testerman, Hancock, & Algozzine, 2000; NCDPI, 2001, 2004).

The most recent phase in the process for evaluation of North Carolina teachers came about when the NCSBE announced a new mission in 2006 (Bradshaw, Phillips, & Jorissen, 2008). This mission stated that “every public school student will graduate from high school, globally competitive for work and postsecondary education and prepared for life in the 21st Century” (Public Schools of North Carolina, 2006). This was followed, also in 2006, by the

development of a new set of goals for public schools entitled *Future-Ready Students for the 21st Century* (Bradshaw et al., 2008) and during 2006 and 2007 by the adoption of 21st Century standards for teachers, school administrators, and superintendents (Greene, 2008; Public Schools of North Carolina, n.d.-e). These revised teaching standards were developed by the NCPTSC, an organization created in 1993 by North Carolina General Statute § 115C-295.1 (2007) for the purpose of establishing high standards for teachers (2007; see Appendix B). The NPTSC then worked with McREL to develop an evaluation instrument and teacher evaluation process that reflected these new standards – the *Rubric for Evaluating North Carolina Teachers* (Bradshaw et al., 2008; McREL, 2009; see Appendix C).

During the 2007-08 school year, 13 of North Carolina's 115 LEAs piloted the North Carolina Teacher Evaluation Process (NCTEP; C. Barbour, personal communication, September 27, 2010). This new process involved significant changes to both the instrument and the procedures used for teacher evaluation. Even though the policy to implement NCTEP was still a work in progress (C. McKinney, NCPTSC, personal communication, Teacher Evaluation Training, Asheville, NC, August 4-6, 2008), 13 LEAs were selected to begin full implementation in 2008-09 (Greene, 2008). Not all of the pilot districts were involved in this first phase of implementation, and some of these 13 districts had not been involved in the pilot (see Table 1). Training was held during the summer for those districts (Greene, 2008). Then, on October 2, 2008, the NCSBE approved the *Policy adopting the North Carolina Teacher Evaluation Rubric and Process for Teacher Evaluation*, TCP-C-004, formalizing the process that had been set in place.

As explained by Cheryl Fuller, NCDPI Consultant, during the training for district personnel prior to implementing the new teacher evaluation process, the NCTEP was scheduled to be implemented via a three-year rollout; the 13 districts using NCTEP during 2008-09 were

designated as Phase I districts (C. Fuller, personal communication, Teacher Evaluation Training, Asheville, NC, August 4-6, 2008). An additional 39 LEAs began using the new evaluation instrument and process in the 2009-10 school year and the remaining districts were scheduled to come on board during 2010-2011 (Public Schools of North Carolina, n.d.-f).

Summary of the Newly Adopted North Carolina Teacher Evaluation Policy

The Policy adopting the North Carolina Teacher Evaluation Rubric and Process for Teacher Evaluation, TCP-C-004, begins with the following purpose

The intended purpose of the North Carolina Teacher Evaluation Process is to assess the teacher's performance in relation to the North Carolina Professional Teaching Standards and to design a plan for professional growth. The principal or a designee ... will conduct the evaluation process in which the teacher will actively participate through the use of selfassessment, reflection, presentation of artifacts, and classroom demonstration(s).

(NCSBE, 2008, p. 1)

The premise on which the process and instrument set forth in this policy was based is that teacher quality matters and that evaluation should involve professional growth and result in improved teacher practice and student learning (Public Schools of North Carolina, n.d.-e). This policy provides guidelines for the use of the new evaluation instrument, the *Rubric for Evaluating North Carolina Teachers*, which was approved by the NCSBE in June of 2008, as well as the various steps in the process (NCSBE, 2008). It kept in place requirements for an orientation to the process, for at least one pre-observation conference per year and a post-observation conference after every observation, for formal evaluations on a validated instrument, for the person being evaluated to have an opportunity to add written comments, and for probationary teachers to be observed at least three times annually by a principal and once by a

teacher and receive a summary evaluation at the end of the year. The policy also continued to allow principals to observe teachers more than the minimum number of times as deemed necessary (NCSBE, 2008).

While there were elements of the process that remained the same, the approval of TCP-C-004 brought about several significant changes. Whereas the most recent evaluation process, the TPAS, included formal evaluations of 45 minutes or longer on the TPAI and TPAI Snapshots, observations that could last a minimum of 15 minutes in length (NCDPI, 2004), the new policy designated two types of classroom observations: formal, which must be 45 minutes or a full lesson, and informal, which should consist of at least a 20-minute observation (NCSBE, 2008), both requiring the use of the *Rubric for Evaluating North Carolina Teachers*. Probationary teachers would receive only formal observations; career-status teachers would receive formal or informal observations based on a cycle determined by the LEA. When a career teacher is in the evaluation year of that cycle, that teacher would receive at least three observations, one of which must be a formal observation. The other two observations that year may be informal. The process used for career teachers during other years was left to the LEA.

Changes in the Instrument and Process

The North Carolina Teacher Evaluation Process has kept some elements of the previous teacher evaluation process, but the new policy has also brought about some marked changes. The most obvious change is in evaluation instrument itself, which was changed to a rubric format that also allows for the use of artifacts and other data in addition to the traditional classroom observation. This new process calls for more involvement by the teacher, including conversations with the evaluator, self-assessment, and a greater emphasis on plans for individual

professional growth. These changes began with the adoption of a revised set of standards for teaching and the development of rubric for measuring them.

Rubric and Standards

The NCPTSC, having been charged to “establish high standards for North Carolina teachers and the teaching profession” (N.C. Gen. Stat. § 115C-295.1, b, 2007), developed the North Carolina Professional Teaching Standards which were approved by the NCSBE on June 7, 2007. The evaluation instrument, called the *Rubric for Evaluating North Carolina Teachers*, is an eleven-page document that includes three to eight elements under each of these five standards (McREL, 2009). The *Rubric* has four rating levels: Developing, Proficient, Accomplished and Distinguished. Descriptors are provided which clarify what teacher and student behaviors or teacher knowledge and understanding would be evident at each level. It is also possible to note on the *Rubric* that a teacher has not demonstrated one of the elements (McREL, 2009). A rating of *Not Demonstrated* is not simply an indication that the specific standard was not observed but serves as documentation of a lack of evidence that the standard is being met at any level (C. Fuller, personal communication, Teacher Evaluation Training, Asheville, NC, August 4-6, 2008). The goal set forth by the NCSBE in this policy is that all teachers will work toward achieving the level of *Distinguished* in all standards (NCSBE, 2008), reflecting their stated premise that quality teaching is vital for student learning.

Self-Assessment

The policy also added the requirement for an annual teacher self-assessment, using the Rubric, which must be completed before and discussed during the pre-observation conference. The evaluator must hold the pre-observation conference before each teacher’s first formal observation of the year. The evaluator and teacher must also use the teacher’s self-assessment

during the development of the teacher's Professional Development Plan (formerly Individual Growth Plan or IGP) and revisited throughout the year (NCSBE, 2008). Self-reflection is an important component of professional growth (Costa & Kallick, 2000), and this use of a formal self-assessment for all teachers used in conjunction with a Professional Development Plan (PDP) represents a focus on professional growth and reflection that was not previously articulated within Board policy on personnel evaluations.

Artifacts

Another change brought about by this policy adoption was the requirement that teachers present artifacts as evidence of proficiency in the various standards and elements listed in the *Rubric* (McREL, 2009; NCSBE, 2008). These artifacts were defined as “natural byproducts of a teacher's work and are not created for the purpose of satisfying evaluation requirements” (McREL, 2009, p. 2). Pre-observation and post-observation conferences should be held in the teachers' classrooms in order to facilitate the use of artifacts and to keep teachers from having to anticipate what the principal might ask to see and create a portfolio to take to the principal's office (C. Fuller, personal communication, Teacher Evaluation Training, Asheville, NC, August 4-6, 2008). Fuller explained that, during the post-observation conference, the teacher and principal should use these artifacts and the discussion around them to add to the ratings the principal had completed on the *Rubric* during the observation. This sharing of artifacts can help promote the formative aspects of evaluation that lead to improved instruction (Glickman et al., 2010) and add elements of self-evaluation to the process (Glickman et al., 2010; Goldrick, 2002).

Plans for Professional Growth

Although the previous evaluation process in North Carolina called for the use of an Individual Growth Plan for every teacher, there were two different versions of the IGP (NCDPI,

2004). The North Carolina Department of Instruction published one version of the IGP for beginning teachers, based on the Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (INTASC) standards, and a different version for experienced teachers. As with the recently adopted teacher evaluation process, the IGP for beginning teachers included a self-assessment, however that assessment was based on the INTASC standards (NCDPI, 2004). The experienced teacher IGP did not involve a self-assessment, nor was it tied to any specific set of standards; the IGP could be based on the school's improvement goals or the teacher's individual goals (NCDPI, 2004). The 2008 version of North Carolina's teacher evaluation policy authorized only one professional development plan document for both beginning and experienced teachers, and this PDP (see Appendix D) was based on the same North Carolina Professional Teaching Standards that were used to develop the *Rubric* (NCSBE, 2008), making a stronger connection between teacher evaluation, self-reflection, and professional growth as teachers work toward becoming *Distinguished* in all areas of the standards as set forth in NCSBE policy.

While the former teacher evaluation policy included two different versions of the IGP based on licensure status and experience level, there was no difference in IGP format based on performance. The 2008 version of the teacher evaluation policy renames this growth plan document the *Professional Development Plan*, but that form can be designated as one of three types of growth plans: Individual, Monitored, or Directed. Although the policy calls these plans Professional Development Plans, with the three versions being an Individual Growth Plan, a Monitored Growth Plan and a Directed Growth Plan, in actual use, the forms have been renamed. These documents are now called the Individual Professional Development Plan (IPDP), the Monitored Professional Development Plan (MPDP) and the Directed Professional Development Plan (DPDP; C. Fuller, personal communication, SummerSALT '09: Teacher Evaluation

Follow-up Session for Administrators, Wilson, NC, June 15, 2009). The choice of which plan a teacher must use is based on performance ratings (NCSBE, 2008). This designation is facilitated by the use of a series of three checkboxes at the bottom of the PDP form indicating whether the document is serving as a regular Individual PDP or a Monitored or Directed PDP.

Under the new policy, teachers who receive ratings of *Proficient* or better on all five standards may use the regular IPDP, while teachers who are not rated at that level are placed on Monitored or Directed PDPs (NCSBE, 2008). Teachers who receive a rating of *Developing* and are “not recommended for dismissal, demotion or non-renewal” (NCSBE, 2008, p. 3) are placed on a Monitored PDP. The only difference in a Monitored PDP and a regular IPDP is that the goals and activities should be designed to allow the teacher to become proficient in the indicated standard(s) within one school year.

A Directed PDP is initiated whenever a teacher receives a rating of *Not Demonstrated* on any standard or if a teacher is rated as *Developing* on any standard “for two sequential years” and is “not recommended for dismissal, demotion or non-renewal” (NCSBE, 2008, pp. 3-4). It is not required that the teacher be rated *Developing* in the same standard for two years; having a rating of *Developing* in one standard one year and a different standard the next is sufficient cause to place the teacher on a Directed PDP (C. Fuller, personal communication, Regional Teacher Evaluation Process Feedback Session, Wilson, NC, November 19, 2008). A Directed PDP also has the goal of allowing the teacher to become proficient in the indicated standard(s), but it may have a timeline shorter than one school year (NCSBE, 2008). Because this plan may be initiated whenever a teacher receives a rating of *Not Demonstrated*, a Directed Growth Plan may be initiated at any time during the school year whereas a Monitored PDP would only be initiated after a teacher received summary ratings at the end of the year. According to North Carolina

General Statute § 115C-333(b; 1998), an LEA must institute an action plan for any certified employee who receives an unsatisfactory or below-standard rating on an evaluation and is not dismissed, demoted or non-renewed. The Directed PDP satisfies the legal requirements for an action plan, however an LEA retains the authority to use a separate action plan document if desired (C. Fuller, personal communication, Regional Teacher Evaluation Process Feedback Session, Wilson, NC, November 19, 2008). After one year of implementation, districts using the new evaluation procedures were advised to use a separate action plan document if dismissal is a possibility (C. Fuller, personal communication, SummerSALT '09: Teacher Evaluation Follow-up Session for Administrators, Wilson, NC, June 15, 2009).

Collegial Conversations

As Glickman and Jones (1986) stated, the purpose of supervision is to create an “instructional dialogue” (p. 90). During the training for Phase I LEAs held August 4-6, 2008, in Asheville, NC, it was emphasized that the new teacher evaluation process was designed to encourage collegial conversations and professional growth. In discussing the process with administrators in his district, one superintendent said that the *Rubric* is “more of an instrument of professional discussion than a check-off list” (L. Price, personal communication, October 6, 2009).

To facilitate these conversations, the *Rubric* is designed with some sections identified as observable during typical classroom observations and others as items that would need to be discussed during conferences or observed at other times (McREL, 2009). In addition, the use of artifacts as described earlier helps to facilitate conversations as the teacher is encouraged to share artifacts during the post-observation conference, which is held in the teacher’s classroom (McREL, 2009; Public Schools of North Carolina, 2009, 2010). To underscore the importance

of collegial conversations and professional growth, a document on the Public Schools of North Carolina (2010) web site clearly describes the kinds of conversations that should be held and emphasizes the focus on student learning during the classroom observation.

Perceptions of Teacher Evaluation

Teachers often view an evaluation of their teaching as a very personal critique. Barnett (2006) found that “teachers' sense of self and self worth was often tied up with their role as a teacher. As a result, they saw the appraisal as a reflection of who they are” (Barnett, 2006, p. 182). Because of this identification of self with ratings of teaching performance, teachers experience a wide range of emotions during or related to the evaluation process. These include helplessness (Wood, 1992), confusion (Towndrow & Tan, 2009), embarrassment (Wang & Day, 2002), stress (Davis et al., 2000; Milanowski & Heneman, 2001; Schumacher, 2004; Wang & Day, 2002), frustration (Collins, 2004; Duke & Stiggins, 1986; Hawley, 1982; Sullivan & Glanz, 2005; Towndrow & Tan, 2009), angst (Barnett, 2006; Collins, 2004; Davis et al., 2000; Duke & Stiggins, 1986; Webster, 1994), defensiveness (Acheson & Gall, 1997, 2003), hostility (Towndrow & Tan, 2009), and resentment (Collins, 2004) as well as empowerment (Lansman, 2006; Stronge & Tucker, 1999; Wang & Day, 2002) and confidence without fear (Kelly, 2006; Zepeda & Ponticell, 1998). Teachers views of the effectiveness of teacher evaluation are likewise wide-ranging, with some teachers viewing the process as effective (Clayton, 2008; Kelly, 2006; La Masa, 2005; Nordheim, 2006), while others have a negative view (Acheson & Gall, 2003; Collins, 2004; Giliya, 2006; Hawley, 1982; Robles, 2007; Zepeda & Ponticell, 1998). Other studies found mixed or conflicting views among teachers (Astor, 2005; Davis et al., 2000; Kimball, 2002; Lansman, 2006). While over 70% of teachers in Astor’s study reported that evaluation helped them grow professionally, there were responses that indicated negative or

neutral ratings of evaluation effectiveness. Whereas Kimball specifically noted that the level of teacher experience appeared to affect that perception – more experienced teachers held a less favorable view of the efficacy of the process than did their less-experienced peers – several studies (Astor, 2005; Kelly, 2006; Kimball, 2002; Lansman, 2006) found that the administrator’s actions were at least somewhat responsible for teacher attitudes toward the process.

In a study of a newly-adopted teacher evaluation system in two different schools, Davis et al. (2000) found that the attitude of the principal toward the evaluation process, as well as his or her expectations of teacher success, had a profound impact on the attitude of the teachers toward and their success with the process. In separate case studies, Kelly (2006) and Lansman (2006) found that the attitude of the principal toward the teacher evaluation process and the working relationship that principal had with the teachers being observed had a positive impact on how those teachers viewed and implemented the feedback received. Lansman (2006) found that the collaborative leadership of the principal was “the major factor impacting the teacher evaluation process” (p. 156), which supports the finding of Milanowski and Heneman (2001) that one of the factors related to negative teacher attitudes toward evaluation was a perceived lack of a “collaborative attitude” (p. 207) on the part of their administrators. Moreover, Welsh-Treglia (2002) reported strong relationships between positive implementation of evaluation processes by administrators and the attitudes of the teachers toward the feedback received. Welsh-Treglia (2002) indicated that encouragement offered by the administrator increased the teacher’s likelihood of accepting feedback and that there were “significant relationship[s] between feedback acceptance and behavior change [and] ... between feedback acceptance and attitude change” (pp. 72-73). Ebmeier (2003) posited that principals have an indirect influence on teacher performance when evaluation helps teachers believe that they can help students

achieve – especially when teachers believe that they have the ability to overcome external factors that might otherwise inhibit learning.

The Use of Teacher Surveys

Many of the reviewed studies and expert opinions reported on the perceptions of the educators involved in teacher evaluation using data gathered via surveys (e.g., Bradshaw, 2002; Duke & Stiggins, 1986; Gordon et. al, 1995; Loup et. al, 1996; Ruckel & Hennes, 1994; Tunison, 2001; Wang & Day, 2002). The gathering of opinion data regarding performance evaluation and the evaluator-evaluated relationship is not new to education, nor is it confined to education. For example, Buckingham and Coffman (1999) analyzed data from 25 years' worth of Gallup surveys to try to discover what it takes to be a great manager. An Internet search will quickly yield multiple links to companies offering to provide surveys tools and assistance to businesses and other organizations. In education, surveys are conducted regularly and for a variety of reasons. The Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS), begun in 1987 as a redesigned compilation of separate surveys, is conducted every few years by the National Center for Education Statistics and includes data on teacher perceptions on a variety of issues (Institute for Education Sciences National Center for Education Statistics, n.d.; Mullens & Kasparzyk, 1996). The MetLife Survey of the American Teacher, which has been conducted for almost 30 years, also gathers data on the perceptions of teachers (MetLife, 2010).

Several states regularly administer a survey to assess teacher perceptions regarding their working conditions – the first state to do this was North Carolina (Exstrom, 2009). Begun in 2002 and administered every two years since (Exstrom, 2009), the NC Teacher Working Conditions (TWC) Survey gathers perceptual data in categories such as time, facilities and resources, community support and involvement, managing student conduct, teacher leadership,

school leadership, professional development, and instructional practices and support (North Carolina's Teacher Working Conditions Initiative, 2010b). Data from the NC TWC are used in the development of school improvement plans, as evidences in the NC Educator Evaluation System, and to help develop and support state policy (Hirsch & Sioberg, n.d.; North Carolina's Teacher Working Conditions Initiative, 2010a, 2010c). School and district administrators are encouraged to use TWC data to hold discussions at their schools and in their districts as they seek ways to identify and resolve problems (North Carolina's Teacher Working Conditions Initiative, 2010a).

However, the validity of data gathered from surveys is dependent upon the honesty of the respondents, which is complicated by the fact that people may respond inaccurately without intending to do so due to lack of information or understanding about their own perceptions (Hopkins, 1980; Mertens, 2010). LaPiere (1934) stated that there may or may not be a relationship between what people *say* and what they actually *do*, making self-reported data unreliable. However, Hopkins (1980) asserted that self-reported data can be “a valuable tool in describing and studying real-world conditions” (p. 303). Regarding the NC TWC Survey, Hirsch and Sioberg (n.d.), stated that while it “has been shown to be a valid and reliable instrument in assessing the presence of teaching conditions that research has demonstrated are important to student success and teacher retention, results should not be used as goals or benchmarks” (p. 2). Berry, Smylie, and Fuller (2008) also cautioned that there are “inevitable empirical shortcomings” when using TWC data, citing the work of Ladd and colleagues in noting that teacher perceptions “include a lot of random variation, or noise” (p. 22). Yet they also asserted that the data could be used to promote thinking and questioning about topics of importance to educational policymakers (Berry et al., 2008). Thus, although teacher perceptions may not be an

exact measure to determine the effectiveness of teacher evaluation practices, these data seem worthy of exploring to gain a sense of what is occurring as changes are implemented.

Summary

The belief that teacher effectiveness is strongly related to student success is not only commonly accepted but is also supported by research. This review of literature also seems to indicate that the principal has the potential to affect both teacher perceptions toward the evaluation process and, ultimately, the effectiveness of that process in improving teaching and learning. While research indicates that teacher evaluation can positively influence teacher practice, this review of literature has also shown that there are many problems that prevent this from occurring and that change is needed. In light of recent changes in the teacher evaluation process in North Carolina that were designed to promote teacher growth and instructional improvement, the focus of this study was to discover whether the teacher evaluation process in North Carolina is perceived by teachers to be moving in the right direction.

This chapter has provided a review of literature pertaining to teacher evaluation as well as information about teacher evaluation policy in the state of North Carolina. Chapter three provides a description of the methodology used for this study.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

This chapter provides an overview of the methodology for this study, including the design, context, instrumentation, data collection methods, and statistical analyses. The chapter begins with a restatement of the problem and the purpose of the study.

Restatement of the Problem and Purpose

Because time is a limited commodity, educators are often admonished to work smarter, not harder. Dyer and Carothers (2000) stated that “the demands on the school administrator and other educational leaders continue to multiply exponentially. Many argue, and we agree, that often the job can be characterized as ‘just not doable’” (p. vii). Faced with this, school administrators may be forced to prioritize among many tasks, among them the supervision of instruction.

Marshall (2009) stated that “the principal's most important job is getting good teaching in every classroom” (p. xvi) and Irvin et al. (2007) stated that “effective instruction is the key to student learning” (p. 156). Thus, teacher evaluation has great promise as a strategy for improving instruction. Regrettably, it has not always lived up to that promise.

Toch and Rothman (2008) described the evaluation of teachers as being “at the center of the educational enterprise” (p. 1) and as holding great potential for the improvement of teaching, but they also stated “that potential is being squandered” (p. 1). Duke and Stiggins (1986) commented that

It is one of life's ironies that those experiences which can be most rewarding also have the potential to be the most frustrating. Teacher evaluation is like that. Done well, teacher evaluation can lead to improved performance, personal growth, and professional esteem.

Done poorly, it can produce anxiety or ennui and drive talented teachers from the profession. (p. 9)

Because of the potential links between teacher evaluation, teacher attitudes, and teacher performance, this study's purpose was to make some preliminary comparisons to see if the changes in North Carolina's teacher evaluation process were related to a change in teacher perceptions.

Research Context

The setting for this study was the state of North Carolina, which includes 115 Local Education Agencies (LEAs). The data used for this study were existing data gathered during statewide surveys administered in 2008 and 2010. During that time period, North Carolina adopted a new teacher evaluation policy that was piloted by thirteen districts and then implemented in three phases (see Table 1). At the time of the 2008 survey, only those thirteen LEAs had experience with the new teacher evaluation instrument and process. When the 2010 survey was administered, 56 LEAs had some experience with the instrument and process while 59 LEAs had not used the new process at all – whether in the pilot or the first two phases of the rollout.

Because of the timing of the surveys within the three-year rollout of the new teacher evaluation instrument and process, six groups of LEAs were defined (see Table 2). Of those six groups, one group, *Phase I Only*, had no experience with the process at the time of the 2008 TWC survey and had almost two full years of experience with the process at the time of the 2010 TWC survey. This allowed for comparisons to be made between their responses to identified questions from the 2008 and 2010 surveys. This group, along with the two groups *Pilot and Phase I* and *Pilot and Phase II*, all had approximately two to three years of experience with the

process at the time of the 2010 survey. This combination of the three most experienced groups of LEAs was designated *Experienced LEAs* for the purposes of this study. Only one group, *Phase III Only*, still had no experience with the process at the time of the 2010 survey. Thus, additional comparisons were made between the responses from the *Phase III Only* LEAs and those from the three groups with the most experience with the new process, the *Experienced LEAs*. A final comparison was made between the responses of the *Experienced LEAs* and the responses from *All LEAs*.

Instrumentation

The data used in this study were obtained via the 2008 and 2010 North Carolina Teacher Working Conditions Surveys. These state-wide surveys have been conducted biennially since 2002, though there have been changes in the format or content of some of the questions asked. Over 104,000 educators responded to the 2008 TWC Survey, which was slightly less than 87% of all public educators in the state (North Carolina's Teacher Working Conditions Initiative, 2008). In 2010, that number increased to over 105,600—almost 89% of the state's public educators—with every individual district in the state having a response rate of at least 72% (North Carolina's Teacher Working Conditions Initiative, 2010c). This represented the largest response rate in the history of the TWC Survey (Hirsch, 2009a). While the survey can be completed by all educators, which includes school administrators, media specialists, counselors, and other education professionals, the data used for analysis in this study included only responses from teachers.

The survey instrument, the North Carolina TWC Survey, contains a series of questions with 5-point Likert-scale responses, with 5 being the highest rating (North Carolina's Teacher Working Conditions Initiative, 2008, 2010b). These questions were designed to gather teacher

perceptions around the quality of practices related to topics such as time, facilities and resources, community support and involvement, managing student conduct, teacher leadership, school leadership, professional development, and instructional practices and support (North Carolina's Teacher Working Conditions Initiative, 2010b). The TWC Survey is administered online via computer-generated, single-use, random access codes which are not linked to the individual participant in any way, though they are linked to the participant's school for reporting purposes (North Carolina's Teacher Working Conditions Initiative, 2010a). To underscore the anonymity of the survey results, the *Frequently Asked Questions* page of the North Carolina's Teacher Working Conditions Initiative (2010a) site advises teachers that switching codes with another teacher at the same school would be permissible and would not affect the results; they further reassure teachers that not even the organizations compiling and analyzing the data would be able to identify the participant who completed any individual survey.

The data from the North Carolina Teacher Working Conditions Survey are used in the state of North Carolina as the beginning of conversations for school improvement (Hirsch & Sioberg, n.d.; North Carolina's Teacher Working Conditions Initiative, 2010c) and is "a key artifact in the North Carolina Educator Evaluation System, the only aligned evaluation system in the nation" (North Carolina's Teacher Working Conditions Initiative, 2010a, Why is this survey important, ¶1). It is also considered to be "a reliable and valid measure of the presence of teaching conditions in participating schools" (New Teacher Center, n.d., p. 1). After the 2008 TWC Survey, the New Teacher Center reported on the reliability and validity of this instrument. The report from the New Teacher Center provided this determination based on this history and origin of the instrument as well as analyses they conducted.

Validity refers to the extent to which a test measures what it purports to measure (Bush, 2002; Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). Three types of validity that are often considered (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000) are content validity, construct validity, and criterion validity. Content validity refers to whether the test or measure represents the content it is intended to measure, construct validity refers to the degree which the measure explains the variance in the results, and criterion-related validity refers to how well a test compares to other measures of the same constructs (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). However, Johnson and Christensen (2008) stated that these are now considered to be simply aspects of validity that would be evidence toward validation rather than distinct types of validity.

To consider the question of content validity, the New Teacher Center (n.d.) reviewed the evolution of the TWC Survey. The original TWC Survey was an outgrowth of a review of literature on teacher working conditions, teacher dissatisfaction, and teacher mobility conducted by the North Carolina Professional Teaching Standards Commission (NCPTSC) and based on the National Center for Education Statistics' School and Staffing Survey, which used the results of that study to develop 30 standards for working conditions; these standards were later approved by the NCSBE (New Teacher Center, n.d.). The TWC was developed to assess whether educators perceived that these standards were in place (New Teacher Center & NCPTSC, n.d.). The New Teacher Center report also detailed the change from a 39-question paper survey with a 6-point scale to a 72-question online survey with a 5-point Likert scale. They also indicated that a sample of educators were polled regarding the relevance and importance of the questions from the 2004 survey and that comparisons were conducted between existing data on some working conditions – such as the amount of planning time – and the perceptual data from the TWC Survey.

To study construct validity, The New Teacher Center (n.d.) conducted a factor analysis of the TWC Survey results. The findings indicated that “the survey sections are well suited in North Carolina to reflecting the focus area of each major concept generated through the factor analyses” (New Teacher Center, n.d., p. 3). Regarding predictive validity, which is a type of criterion-related validity (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000), the New Teacher Center reviewed reports conducted on the 2006 TWC Survey which showed connections between the survey data and elements such as teacher satisfaction, teacher retention, and student achievement. They further stated that “analyses from 2008 confirm these connections” (New Teacher Center, n.d., p. 4).

The New Teacher Center (n.d.) also reported on the reliability of the TWC Survey. Whereas validity refers to whether or not a test measures what it is expected to measure, reliability refers to the precision of an instrument – its ability to measure consistently whatever it is measuring (Bush, 2002; Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). “In order to test the internal consistency of the five major factors utilized in the North Carolina TWC report (leadership, professional development, facilities and resources, decision making, and time), Cronbach’s alphas were run on teacher responses” (New Teacher Center, n.d., p. 4). An acceptable level for research is an alpha of 0.7 or higher (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000); the New Teacher Center found all five of the factors they analyzed to have alphas of above 0.8.

The North Carolina TWC Survey attempts to measure the perceptions of educators. However, according to Hirsch and Sioberg (n.d.), the perceptual data gathered by the TWC Survey can provide important glimpses into what is working in schools.

While the survey results are perceptual data from educators about the presence of important teaching conditions, it does not mean it is not “valid” or as important as other data sources. Educator perceptions of the culture and context of their school have been

linked in a number of studies to student learning, future employment plans, efficacy and motivation. Analyzing and using this information to improve schools is critical and needs to be a part of reform efforts at the school, district and state levels. Educators' perceptions are their reality. (Hirsch & Sioberg, n.d., p. 3)

In both 2008 and 2010, every traditional public school in North Carolina had at least 40% participation in the TWC Survey, the minimum participation rate for their data to be considered valid (Hirsch, 2009b; North Carolina's Teacher Working Conditions Initiative, 2010c).

From the 2008 NC TWC Survey (North Carolina's Teacher Working Conditions Initiative, 2008), responses from the following three questions were reviewed:

1. Q5.1 k. Teachers are held to high professional standards for delivering instruction.
2. Q5.1 n. Teachers receive feedback that can help them improve teaching.
3. Q5.1 m. The procedures for teacher performance evaluations are consistent.

From the 2010 NC TWC Survey (North Carolina's Teacher Working Conditions Initiative, 2010b), responses from the following five questions were reviewed:

1. Q7.1 e. Teachers are held to high professional standards for delivering instruction.
2. Q7.1 h. Teachers receive feedback that can help them improve teaching.
3. Q7.1 i. The procedures for teacher evaluation are consistent.
4. Q8.1 h. Teachers are encouraged to reflect on their own practice.
5. Q9.1 f. Teachers are encouraged to try new things to improve instruction.

Research Questions

As indicated, there were three questions related to teacher evaluation in both the 2008 and 2010 TWC Surveys and two additional relevant questions in the 2010 TWC Survey. Thus, the following research questions provided focus for this study:

1. Is there a difference in the perceptions of teachers in the *Phase I Only* LEAs as expressed in the 2010 TWC Survey as compared to the 2008 TWC Survey regarding whether
 - a. They are held to high professional standards for delivering instruction?
 - b. They receive feedback that can help them improve instruction?
 - c. Procedures for teacher evaluation are consistent?
2. Is there a difference in the perceptions of teachers in the *Experienced LEAs* and the perceptions of teachers in the *Phase III Only* LEAs as expressed in the 2010 TWC Survey regarding whether
 - a. They are held to high professional standards for delivering instruction?
 - b. They receive feedback that can help them improve instruction?
 - c. Procedures for teacher evaluation are consistent?
 - d. They are encouraged to reflect on their own practice?
 - e. They are encouraged to try new things to improve instruction?
3. Is there a difference in the perceptions of teachers in the *Experienced LEAs* and the perceptions of teachers in the state as a whole (*All LEAs*) as expressed in the 2010 TWC Survey regarding whether
 - a. They are held to high professional standards for delivering instruction?
 - b. They receive feedback that can help them improve instruction?
 - c. Procedures for teacher evaluation are consistent?
 - d. They are encouraged to reflect on their own practice?
 - e. They are encouraged to try new things to improve instruction?

Research Hypotheses

The following are the null hypotheses that were tested:

1. There is no significant difference in the perceptions of teachers in the *Phase I Only* LEAs as expressed in the 2010 TWC Survey as compared to the 2008 TWC Survey regarding whether
 - a. They are held to high professional standards for delivering instruction.
 - b. They receive feedback that can help them improve instruction.
 - c. Procedures for teacher evaluation are consistent.
2. There is no significant difference in the perceptions of teachers in the *Experienced LEAs* and the perceptions of teachers in the *Phase III Only* LEAs as expressed in the 2010 TWC Survey regarding whether
 - a. They are held to high professional standards for delivering instruction.
 - b. They receive feedback that can help them improve instruction.
 - c. Procedures for teacher evaluation are consistent.
 - d. They are encouraged to reflect on their own practice.
 - e. They are encouraged to try new things to improve instruction.
3. There is no significant difference in the perceptions of teachers in the *Experienced LEAs* and the perceptions of teachers in the state as a whole (*All LEAs*) as expressed in the 2010 TWC Survey regarding whether
 - a. They are held to high professional standards for delivering instruction.
 - b. They receive feedback that can help them improve instruction.
 - c. Procedures for teacher evaluation are consistent.
 - d. They are encouraged to reflect on their own practice.

- e. They are encouraged to try new things to improve instruction.

Research Design

This study used a Quantitative methodology to compare responses to Likert-scale items for the same group of LEAs in two different years—before and after implementation of NCTEP—and between different groups of LEAs. The first research hypothesis concerned responses from the same group of LEAs – the *Phase I Only* LEAs – at two different times. Because there was to be a comparison of means on the same group before and after the implementation of the new teacher evaluation process, a *t* test for dependent means was appropriate (Salkind, 2005). The second and third research hypotheses each concerned responses from two different groups at the same time; thus, a *t* test for independent means was appropriate (Salkind, 2005). For all three hypotheses, the statistical significance level was set at .05.

This study, like the majority of research done in the behavioral and social sciences, was nonexperimental or “ex post facto research” (Hoy, 2010, p. 16). In nonexperimental research, the action on the independent variable has already taken place or is not within the control of the researcher and selection of the participants is not random (Hoy, 2010; Johnson & Christensen, 2008; Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). This study was conducted after the pilot LEAs were determined and after all 115 North Carolina LEAs were selected for one of the three phases of implementation.

In addition, this study was causal-comparative. Johnson and Christensen (2008) described causal-comparative research as a type of nonexperimental research in which the independent variables are categorical and the dependent variables are quantitative, however they cautioned that the use of the term *causal* should not be construed to mean that such research could be used to determine causality. Because causal-comparative research is a type of

nonexperimental research, there is less control and therefore less certainty of the cause of any relationship found to exist between or among the variables (Johnson & Christensen, 2008).

Data Collection

The data were obtained from the NCPTSC. In order to receive the data, the researcher had to agree to protect the confidentiality of all participants. A copy of the attestation letter is included in Appendix E. The letter granting IRB approval to conduct the study is located in Appendix F.

The data received included responses to the previously identified questions from the TWC Surveys in 2008 and 2010. The only responses needed from the 2008 survey were those from the *Phase I Only* LEAs, but all responses from the 2010 survey were needed in order to address all three research hypotheses. Because the data were to be compared in aggregate groups and individual school and teacher demographics were not to be used, the data were requested to be identified by LEA only so that no individual teacher or school would be identifiable.

Data Analysis

The data were analyzed using Predictive Analytics SoftWare (PASW), version 18.0.1 formerly SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences). Because the TWC Survey uses a Likert scale, responses from the 2008 TWC were converted to numerical values as follows: 1=strongly disagree, 2=somewhat disagree, 3=neither agree nor disagree, 4=somewhat agree, and 5=strongly agree. Responses from the 2010 TWC will be converted to numerical values as follows: 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=don't know, 4=agree, and 5=strongly agree. In all of the selected questions, the preferred response would receive the highest score. An average score was created for each item across respondents by computing the mean of the responses based on this coding scale which allowed for the incorporation of inferential statistics.

Because responses on Likert scale items are discrete rather than continuous, the distribution cannot be expected to be normal, thus the results would be most useful in determining trends rather than as evidence of a statistically significant difference between groups (Information Technology Services, n.d.). In order to check the validity of any observed trends during the analysis, histograms were run to check the distribution of responses to ensure that they were mound-shaped which, according to Mendenhall (as cited in Information Technology Services, n.d.), would allow for valid results despite the nonnormality of the distribution. While the use of Likert items does violate the assumption of a normal distribution, it is possible that a large sample size would still produce valid findings and could be preferred over a less-powerful, non-parametric option (Pallant, 2005). According to Green and Salkind (2008), a sample size of more than 30 for *t* tests of dependent means and of more than 15 per group for *t* tests of independent means would generate somewhat accurate *p* values, and, for both types of *t* tests, “larger sample sizes may be required to produce relative valid *p* values if the population distributions are substantially nonnormal” (pp. 170, 176). The sample sizes in this study were large due to the high number of teachers participating in the TWC survey in both 2008 and 2010. To investigate the first research hypothesis, a series of three dependent samples *t* tests was conducted on the three TWC survey items indicated in Figure 1. This test was appropriate because the responses from the group *Phase I Only* LEAs that were collected in 2008 were compared to the 2010 responses from the same group (Salkind, 2005). The *t* tests compared results on each of the three TWC Survey questions identified in the first research hypothesis to see whether there was a significant difference between the respondents’ average level of agreement for the Phase I only group across the time period ($p < .05$). This helped determine

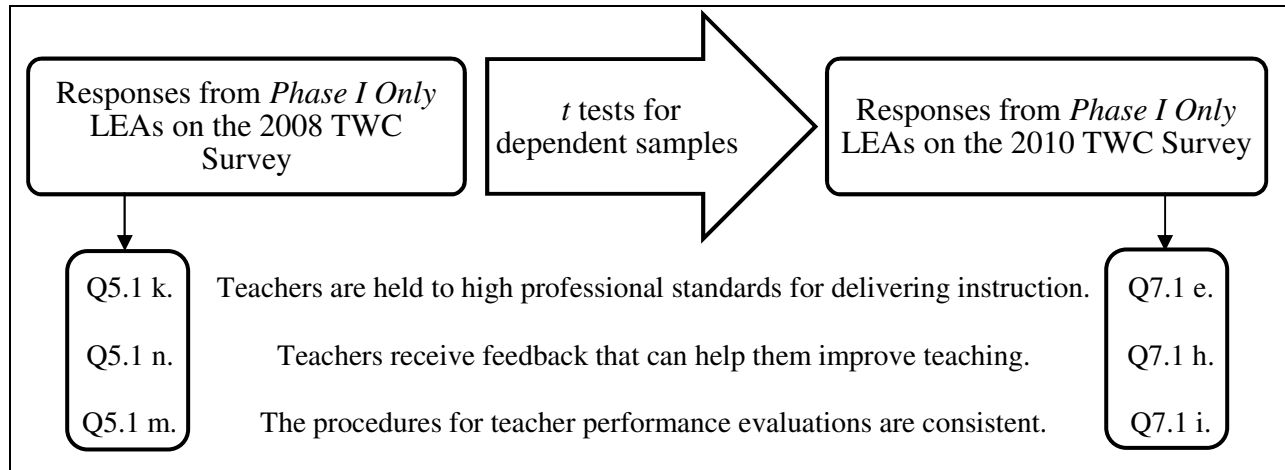


Figure 1. North Carolina TWC Survey questions examined in research question 1.

whether the perceptions of teachers toward evaluation were different after having experienced the new teacher evaluation process for almost two years.

To investigate the second and third research hypotheses, a series of ten independent samples *t* tests was conducted on the five TWC survey items listed in Figure 2. This test was appropriate because responses from two different groups that were gathered during the 2010 TWC Survey were compared (Salkind, 2005). For the second research hypothesis, responses from the *Experienced LEAs* were compared to the *Phase III Only LEAs* to see if there was a significant difference ($p < .05$) between the perceptions of teachers toward evaluation in those LEAs with the most experience with the new process as compared to those who had still not begun implementation. For the third research hypothesis, responses from the *Experienced LEAs* were compared to the responses from (*All LEAs*) to determine whether a significant difference ($p < .05$) in teacher perceptions existed between those *Experienced LEAs* and the responses from (*All LEAs*).

By using both sets of tests, this study hoped to provide some initial comparison data to see what impact, if any, the new teacher evaluation instrument and process in North Carolina was having on teacher perceptions of the evaluation process, feedback, and standards for instruction as well as their perceptions of their administrators' expectations for teacher reflection and innovation for improved instructional delivery in their schools.

Summary

This chapter provided an overview of the methodology that was used in this study. Chapter four discusses the analysis of the data using the methodology outlined in this chapter.

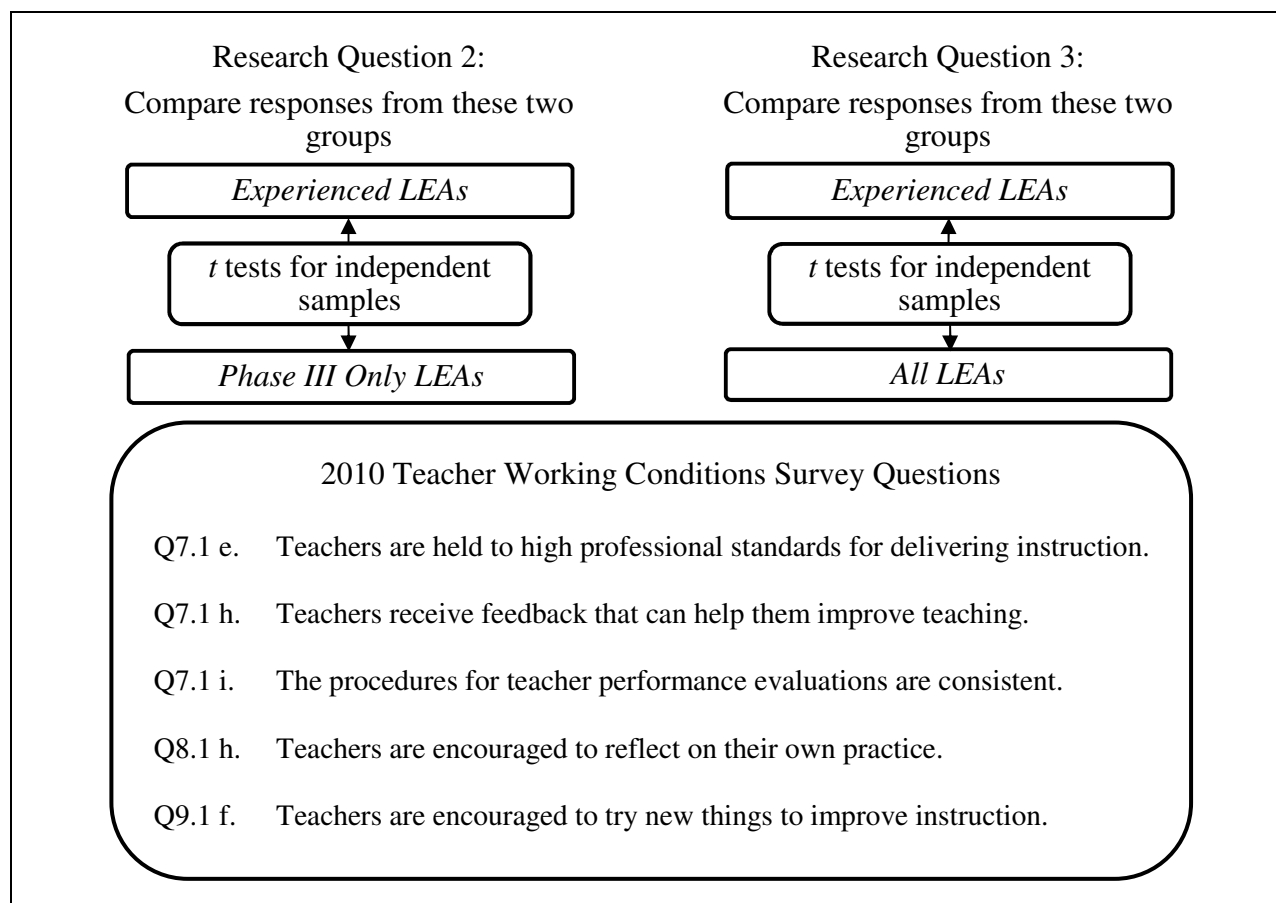


Figure 2. North Carolina TWC Survey questions examined in research questions 2 and 3.

CHAPTER FOUR: DATA ANALYSIS

This chapter provides an analysis of the data obtained for this study and the findings related to each of the three research questions. PASW version 18.0.1 was used to analyze the data.

As stated in chapter one, the purpose of this study was to examine whether teachers reported a significantly different level of agreement to specified items on the North Carolina Teacher Working Conditions Survey after having used the NCTEP for almost two years and to examine whether teachers in the LEAs with the most experience with the NCTEP reported significantly different levels of agreement to specified TWC items as compared to districts with no experience with the NCTEP or to the state as a whole. For the purpose of this study, six distinct groups were identified based on their level of experience with the new instrument and process; four of these were selected for analysis (see Table 2). The *Phase I Only* LEAs had not begun using the new teacher evaluation process at the time of the 2008 TWC Survey and had been using it for almost two full years by the time of the 2010 TWC Survey, allowing for a comparison of responses over time. The *Phase I Only* LEAs, along with two other identified groups, were combined and designated *Experienced LEAs*. At the time of the 2010 TWC Survey, these *Experienced LEAs* had been using the new teacher evaluation process between two and three years while the fourth group – the *Phase III Only* LEAs – still had no experience with the new teacher evaluation process.

The study was guided by the following research questions:

1. Is there a difference in the perceptions of teachers in the *Phase I Only* LEAs as expressed in the 2010 TWC Survey as compared to the 2008 TWC Survey regarding whether

- a. They are held to high professional standards for delivering instruction?
 - b. They receive feedback that can help them improve instruction?
 - c. Procedures for teacher evaluation are consistent?
2. Is there a difference in the perceptions of teachers in the *Experienced LEAs* and the perceptions of teachers in the *Phase III Only* LEAs as expressed in the 2010 TWC Survey regarding whether
- a. They are held to high professional standards for delivering instruction?
 - b. They receive feedback that can help them improve instruction?
 - c. Procedures for teacher evaluation are consistent?
 - d. They are encouraged to reflect on their own practice?
 - e. They are encouraged to try new things to improve instruction?
3. Is there a difference in the perceptions of teachers in the *Experienced LEAs* and the perceptions of teachers in the state as a whole (*All LEAs*) as expressed in the 2010 TWC Survey regarding whether
- a. They are held to high professional standards for delivering instruction?
 - b. They receive feedback that can help them improve instruction?
 - c. Procedures for teacher evaluation are consistent?
 - d. They are encouraged to reflect on their own practice?
 - e. They are encouraged to try new things to improve instruction?

In each section of this chapter, the following codes are used to indicate the items from the NC Teacher Working Conditions Survey referenced in the research questions.

ProfStd – Teachers are held to high professional standards for delivering instruction.

FdbkImpr – Teachers receive feedback that can help them improve teaching.

EvalConsis – The procedures for teacher evaluation are consistent.

Reflect – Teachers are encouraged to reflect on their own practice.

TryNew – Teachers are encouraged to try new things to improve instruction.

For the 2008 TWC Survey, responses were coded as follows: 1=strongly disagree, 2=somewhat disagree, 3=neither agree nor disagree, 4=somewhat agree, and 5=strongly agree. For the 2010 TWC, the responses were originally coded as 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=agree, 4=strongly agree, and 5=don't know, with the neutral option at the end. So that comparisons to the 2008 TWC Survey could be made, the responses were re-coded as follows: 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=don't know, 4=agree, and 5=strongly agree.

Research Question One

In order to investigate the first research question, the following null hypothesis was tested: There is no significant difference in the perceptions of teachers in the *Phase I Only* LEAs as expressed in the 2010 TWC Survey as compared to the 2008 TWC Survey regarding whether

- a. They are held to high professional standards for delivering instruction.
- b. They receive feedback that can help them improve instruction.
- c. Procedures for teacher evaluation are consistent.

The participants for this portion of the study included teachers in the seven LEAs designated as *Phase I Only* who responded to each of the three identified questions from the Teacher Working Conditions Survey. These seven LEAs were renamed, in no particular order, as PI_01 through PI_07. In order to compare the level of agreement in 2008 to that in 2010, the mean for each set of responses was generated. Table 3 lists the number of respondents as well as the mean for each LEA for each identified item from 2008 and 2010. The number of responses to different questions in the same year will vary since participants were not required to answer all of the

Table 3

Response Means – High Professional Standards 2008 and 2010

OrgID	2008			2010		
	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
PI_01	4.4279	208	.73201	4.4220	218	.66918
PI_02	4.3591	635	.87024	4.2540	618	.82615
PI_03	4.3670	109	.81264	4.5714	112	.54878
PI_04	4.3950	238	.90212	4.3750	224	.70393
PI_05	4.2503	827	.94982	4.2889	810	.78016
PI_06	4.2885	520	.93604	4.2578	512	.88250
PI_07	4.3099	484	.91628	4.4367	458	.66921
Total	4.3171	3021	.90441	4.3262	2952	.77640

Note. OrgIDs PI_01 through PI_07 refer to the seven Phase I Only LEAs.

questions. However, since a choice of *neither agree nor disagree* was an option for 2008 and *don't know* was an option for 2010, a blank response was not construed to have any meaning and was omitted. A dependent samples *t* test was performed on the set of responses to determine whether a significant difference existed in teacher perceptions for each item in the two survey years.

High Professional Standards

There were 3021 responses to this question across the seven *Phase I LEAs* at the time of the 2008 TWC Survey and 2952 responses at the time of the 2010 TWC Survey (see Table 3). A dependent samples *t* test was conducted to compare the level of agreement with the statement, “teachers are held to high professional standards for delivering instruction,” for the *Phase I Only LEAs* in 2008 to the responses in those same LEAs in 2010. As shown in Table 4, there was no significant difference in the level of agreement in 2008 and 2010, with $t(6)=.752$, $p=.480$. Thus, the null hypothesis was accepted.

Feedback to Help Improve

There were 3014 responses to this question across the seven *Phase I LEAs* at the time of the 2008 TWC Survey and 2952 responses at the time of the 2010 TWC Survey (see Table 5). A dependent samples *t* test was conducted to compare the level of agreement with the statement, “teachers receive feedback that can help them improve teaching,” for the *Phase I Only LEAs* in 2008 to the responses in those same LEAs in 2010. As shown in Table 6, there was no significant difference in the level of agreement in 2008 and 2010, with $t(6)=.751$, $p=.481$. Thus, the null hypothesis was accepted.

Table 4

Paired Samples Test for High Professional Standards – 2008 and 2010

Paired Differences								
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		t	df	Sig. (2- tailed)
				Lower	Upper			
ProfStds10Mean - ProfStds08Mean	.02973	.10455	.03952	-.06696	.12642	.752	6	.480

Table 5

Response Means – Feedback to Help Improve 2008 and 2010

OrgID	2008			2010		
	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
PI_01	4.1359	206	.99313	4.3119	218	.66092
PI_02	4.2334	634	.92997	4.0356	618	.92087
PI_03	4.0734	109	1.11974	4.3694	111	.78541
PI_04	4.2542	240	1.01762	4.0933	225	.90888
PI_05	3.9733	824	1.13136	3.9410	814	1.05166
PI_06	4.1541	519	1.09902	4.1314	510	.92785
PI_07	3.7241	482	1.20317	4.1184	456	.87656
Total	4.0564	3014	1.09345	4.0762	2952	.93826

Note. OrgIDs PI_01 through PI_07 refer to the seven Phase I Only LEAs.

Table 6

Paired Samples Test for Feedback to Help Improve – 2008 and 2010

Paired Differences								
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		t	df	Sig. (2- tailed)
				Lower	Upper			
FdbkImpr10Mean - FdbkImpr08Mean	.06466	.22781	.08610	-.14603	.27534	.751	6	.481

Consistent Evaluation Procedures

There were 3025 responses to this question across the seven *Phase I LEAs* at the time of the 2008 TWC Survey and 2957 responses at the time of the 2010 TWC Survey (see Table 7). A dependent samples *t* test was conducted to compare the level of agreement with the statement, “the procedures for teacher performance evaluations are consistent,” for the *Phase I Only LEAs* in 2008 to the responses in those same LEAs in 2010. As shown in Table 8, there was no significant difference in the level of agreement in 2008 and 2010, with $t(6)=.386$, $p=.713$. Thus, the null hypothesis was accepted.

Summary of Findings for Research Question One

Three dependent samples *t* tests were run on the TWC survey response data from the *Phase I Only LEAs* for 2008 and 2010 to determine whether there was a significant difference in teacher perceptions related to teacher evaluation. For all three identified TWC survey items, there was no significant difference in the responses from these LEAs between the 2008 survey, which occurred before they had any experience with the NCTEP, and the 2010 survey, which occurred after they had almost two full years of experience with the new instrument and process.

Research Question Two

In order to investigate the second research question, the following null hypothesis was tested: There is no significant difference in the perceptions of teachers in the *Experienced LEAs* and the perceptions of teachers in the *Phase III Only LEAs* as expressed in the 2010 TWC Survey regarding whether

- a. They are held to high professional standards for delivering instruction.
- b. They receive feedback that can help them improve instruction.
- c. Procedures for teacher evaluation are consistent.

Table 7

Response Means – Consistent Evaluation Procedures 2008 and 2010

OrgID	2008			2010		
	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
PI_01	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	4.1560	218	.93251
PI_02	4.0966	207	1.06595	4.0162	618	.97774
PI_03	4.2343	636	.97697	4.3036	112	.81472
PI_04	4.0463	108	1.11392	4.0667	225	.92582
PI_05	4.2116	241	1.03321	3.8870	814	1.07161
PI_06	3.9408	828	1.16275	4.1250	512	.92370
PI_07	4.1593	521	1.05955	4.1528	458	.82268
Total	3.8079	484	1.19448	4.0457	2957	.96677

Note. OrgIDs PI_01 through PI_07 refer to the seven Phase I Only LEAs.

Table 8

Paired Samples Test for Consistent Evaluation Procedures – 2008 and 2010

Paired Differences								
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
				Lower	Upper			
EvalConsis10Mean - EvalConsis08Mean	.03007	.20615	.07792	-.16059	.22073	.386	6	.713

- d. They are encouraged to reflect on their own practice.
- e. They are encouraged to try new things to improve instruction.

As shown in Table 2, the participants for this portion of the study included teachers in the 16 LEAs designated as *Experienced LEAs*; this included the LEAs involved in the pilot that were in Phase I or Phase II of the three-year rollout of the new teacher evaluation instrument and process as well as those LEAs not involved in the pilot that also began in Phase I. These LEAs had from just under two years to just under three years of experience with the evaluation process by the time of the 2010 TWC Survey. The second group of participants for this portion of the study included the teachers in the 59 *Phase III Only* LEAs; these LEAs had not begun using the NCTEP at the time of the 2010 TWC Survey. The number of responses for each of the selected TWC Survey items is shown in Table 9. An independent samples *t* test was performed to discover whether there was a difference in perceptions of teachers in the two groups for each of the five identified TWC items.

High Professional Standards

As shown in Table 9, there were 6375 responses from the *Experienced LEAs* and 65846 responses from the *Phase III Only LEAs* on the 2010 TWC Survey regarding their level of agreement with the statement, “teachers are held to high professional standards for delivering instruction.” Table 10 lists the descriptive statistics for these two groups of responses. An independent samples *t* test was conducted to compare responses from the identified groups: *Experienced LEAs* and *Phase III Only LEAs*. One of the assumptions of this test is that the population variances are equal, thus Levene’s Test for Equality of Variances was conducted (Green & Salkind, 2008; Pallant, 2005). As shown in Table 11, Levene’s Test was significant, thus the data violate the assumption of equal variances. Hence, the value of *t* for which equal

Table 9

Number of North Carolina 2010 TWC Survey Responses – Research Question 2

Experience Level	ProfStds	FdbkImpr	EvalConsis	Reflect	TryNew
Experienced LEAs (Exp)	6375	6375	6381	6351	6355
Phase III Only LEAs (P3)	65846	65855	65839	65578	65570

Note. The headings above refer to each of the five identified TWC items: High Professional Standards, Feedback to Help Improve, Consistent Evaluation Procedures, Reflect on Practice, and Try New Things to Improve Instruction.

Table 10

Responses for High Professional Standards 2010 – Experienced LEAs and Phase III Only LEAs

	ExLev	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
ProfStds10	Exp	6375	4.2982	.77821	.00975
	P3	65846	4.2587	.84132	.00328

Table 11

Independent Samples Test for High Professional Standards 2010 – Experienced LEAs and Phase III Only LEAs

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2- tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
ProfStds10	Equal variances assumed	11.601	.001	3.604	72219	.000	.03952	.01096	.01803	.06101
	Equal variances not assumed			3.843	7888.390	.000	.03952	.01028	.01936	.05967

variances are not assumed was used. There was a significant difference in the responses for teachers from the *Experienced LEAs* and the *Phase III Only LEAs*, with $t(7888.390)=3.843$ (see Table 11). Thus, the null hypothesis was rejected. However, in the case of large samples, even small differences can be significant (Pallant, 2005), so a further test was needed to determine effect size. According to Cohen (1977), the larger the value of the effect size, “the greater the *degree* to which the phenomenon under study is manifested” (Cohen, 1977, p. 10). Eta squared was computed and compared to the values posited by Cohen (as cited in Pallant, 2005) for a small (.01), moderate (.06), or large (.14) effect size. While teachers from the *Experienced LEAs* expressed a higher level of agreement that they are held to high professional standards for delivering instruction, the eta squared value was very small (.000204), providing for only 0.020% of the variance accounted for by the level of experience with the teacher evaluation instrument.

Feedback to Help Improve

As shown in Table 9, there were 6375 responses from the *Experienced LEAs* and 65855 responses from the *Phase III Only LEAs* on the 2010 TWC Survey regarding their level of agreement with the statement, “teachers receive feedback that can help them improve teaching.” An independent samples t test was conducted to compare responses from the identified groups: *Experienced LEAs* and *Phase III Only LEAs*. Levene’s Test for Equality of Variances was significant, thus the value of t for which equal variances are not assumed was used. There was a significant difference in the responses for teachers from the *Experienced LEAs* and the *Phase III Only LEAs*, with $t(7832.023)= 8.084$ (see Tables 12 and 13). Thus, the null hypothesis was rejected. While teachers from the *Experienced LEAs* expressed a higher level of agreement that they receive feedback that can help them improve teaching, the eta squared value was very small

Table 12

Responses for Feedback to Help Improve 2010 – Experienced LEAs and Phase III Only LEAs

	ExLev	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
FdbkImpr10	Exp	6375	4.0049	.96331	.01206
	P3	65855	3.9021	1.02279	.00399

Table 13

Independent Samples Test for Feedback to Help Improve 2010 – Experienced LEAs and Phase III Only LEAs

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2- tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
FdbkImpr10	Equal variances assumed	87.725	.000	7.695	72228	.000	.10271	.01335	.07655	.12888
	Equal variances not assumed			8.084	7832.023	.000	.10271	.01271	.07781	.12762

(.000904), providing for only .090% of the variance accounted for by the level of experience with the teacher evaluation instrument.

Consistent Evaluation Procedures

As shown in Table 9, there were 6381 responses from the *Experienced LEAs* and 65839 responses from the *Phase III Only LEAs* on the 2010 TWC Survey regarding their level of agreement with the statement, “the procedures for teacher performance evaluations are consistent.” An independent samples *t* test was conducted to compare responses from the identified groups: *Experienced LEAs* and *Phase III Only LEAs*. Levene’s Test for Equality of Variances was significant, thus the value of *t* for which equal variances are not assumed was used. There was a significant difference in the responses for teachers from the *Experienced LEAs* and the *Phase III Only LEAs*, with $t(7849.237) = 9.029$ (see Tables 14 and 15). Thus, the null hypothesis was rejected. While teachers from the *Experienced LEAs* expressed a higher level of agreement that the procedures for teacher performance evaluations are consistent, the eta squared value was very small (.001128), providing for only .113% of the variance accounted for by the level of experience with the teacher evaluation instrument.

Reflect on Practice

As shown in Table 9, there were 6351 responses from the *Experienced LEAs* and 65578 responses from the *Phase III Only LEAs* on the 2010 TWC Survey regarding their level of agreement with the statement, “teachers are encouraged to reflect on their own practice.” An independent samples *t* test was conducted to compare responses from the identified groups: *Experienced LEAs* and *Phase III Only LEAs*. There was a significant difference in the responses for teachers from the *Experienced LEAs* and the *Phase III Only LEAs*, with $t(71927) = 5.917$ (see Tables 16 and 17). Thus, the null hypothesis was rejected. While teachers from the *Experienced*

Table 14

Responses for Consistent Evaluation Procedures 2010 – Experienced LEAs and Phase III Only LEAs

	ExLev	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
EvalConsis10	Exp	6381	3.9923	.97593	.01222
	P3	65839	3.8761	1.03892	.00405

Table 15

Independent Samples Test for Consistent Evaluation Procedures 2010 – Experienced LEAs and Phase III Only LEAs

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2- tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
EvalConsis10	Equal variances assumed	122.768	.000	8.576	72218	.000	.11621	.01355	.08966	.14277
	Equal variances not assumed			9.029	7849.237	.000	.11621	.01287	.09098	.14144

Table 16

Responses for Reflect on Practice 2010 – Experienced LEAs and Phase III Only LEAs

	ExLev	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Reflect10	Exp	6351	4.0745	.79206	.00994
	P3	65578	4.0095	.83925	.00328

Table 17

Independent Samples Test for Reflect on Practice 2010 – Experienced LEAs and Phase III Only LEAs

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2- tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Reflect10	Equal variances assumed	1.082	.298	5.917	71927	.000	.06495	.01098	.04343	.08646
	Equal variances not assumed			6.206	7797.020	.000	.06495	.01047	.04443	.08546

LEAs expressed a higher level of agreement that they are encouraged to reflect on their own practice, the eta squared value was very small (.000487), providing for only .049% of the variance accounted for by the level of experience with the teacher evaluation instrument.

Try New Things to Improve Instruction

As shown in Table 9, there were 6355 responses from the *Experienced LEAs* and 65570 responses from the *Phase III Only LEAs* on the 2010 TWC Survey regarding their level of agreement with the statement, “teachers are encouraged to try new things to improve instruction.” An independent samples *t* test was conducted to compare responses from the identified groups: *Experienced LEAs* and *Phase III Only LEAs*. There was a significant difference in the responses for teachers from the *Experienced LEAs* and the *Phase III Only LEAs*, with $t(71923) = 9.326$ (see Tables 18 and 19). Thus, the null hypothesis was rejected. While teachers from the *Experienced LEAs* expressed a higher level of agreement that they are encouraged to try new things to improve instruction, the eta squared value was very small (.001208), providing for only .121% of the variance accounted for by the level of experience with the teacher evaluation instrument.

Summary of Findings for Research Question Two

Five independent samples *t* tests were run on the 2010 TWC survey response data from the *Experienced LEAs* and the *Phase III Only LEAs* to determine whether there was a significant difference between these two groups concerning teacher perceptions related to teacher evaluation. At the time of the 2010 TWC Survey, the 16 *LEAs* in the group *Experienced LEAs* had approximately two to three years of experience with the new teacher evaluation instrument and process whereas the *Phase III Only LEAs* had no experience with the instrument and process. There was a significant difference between the responses of both groups for all five TWC Survey

Table 18

Responses for Try New Things to Improve 2010 – Experienced LEAs and Phase III Only LEAs

	ExLev	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
TryNew10	Exp	6355	4.2069	.72685	.00912
	P3	65570	4.1059	.83351	.00326

Table 19

Independent Samples Test for Try New Things to Improve 2010 – Experienced LEAs and Phase III Only LEAs

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2- tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
TryNew10	Equal variances assumed	2.919	.088	9.326	71923	.000	.10104	.01083	.07980	.12227
	Equal variances not assumed			10.436	8064.178	.000	.10104	.00968	.08206	.12001

items tested, with the perceptions of teachers in the group *Experienced LEAs* being more highly favorable than the group *Phase III Only*. However, in each case, only a very small percentage of the variance was accounted for by the level of experience with the teacher evaluation instrument and process.

Research Question Three

In order to investigate the third research question, the following null hypothesis was tested: There is no significant difference in the perceptions of teachers in the *Experienced LEAs* and the perceptions of teachers in the state as a whole (*All LEAs*) as expressed in the 2010 TWC Survey regarding whether

- a. They are held to high professional standards for delivering instruction.
- b. They receive feedback that can help them improve instruction.
- c. Procedures for teacher evaluation are consistent.
- d. They are encouraged to reflect on their own practice.
- e. They are encouraged to try new things to improve instruction.

The participants for this portion of the study again included teachers in the 16 LEAs designated as *Experienced LEAs* – those LEAs with between just under two years and just under three years of experience with the evaluation process by the time of the 2010 TWC Survey – and the set of responses from *All LEAs*. The number of responses for each of the selected TWC Survey items is shown in Table 20. An independent samples *t* test was performed to discover whether there was a difference in perceptions of teachers in the two groups for each of the five identified TWC items.

Table 20

Number of North Carolina TWC Survey Responses – Research Question 3

Group	ProfStd	FdbkImpr	EvalConsis	Reflect	TryNew
Experienced LEAs	6375	6375	6381	6351	6355
All LEAs	89080	89086	89089	88739	88739

High Professional Standards

As shown in Table 20, there were 6375 responses from the *Experienced LEAs* and 89080 responses from *All LEAs* on the 2010 TWC Survey regarding their level of agreement with the statement, “teachers are held to high professional standards for delivering instruction.” An independent samples *t* test was conducted to compare responses from the identified groups: *Experienced LEAs* and *All LEAs*. Levene’s Test for Equality of Variances was significant, thus the value of *t* for which equal variances are not assumed was used. There was a significant difference in the responses for teachers from the *Experienced LEAs* and *All LEAs*, with $t(7457.134) = 3.580$ (see Tables 21 and 22). Thus, the null hypothesis was rejected. While teachers from the *Experienced LEAs* expressed a higher level of agreement that they are held to high professional standards for delivering instruction, the eta squared value was very small (.000134), providing for only 0.013% of the variance accounted for by the level of experience with the teacher evaluation instrument.

Feedback to Help Improve

As shown in Table 20, there were 6375 responses from the *Experienced LEAs* and 89086 responses from *All LEAs* on the 2010 TWC Survey regarding their level of agreement with the statement, “teachers receive feedback that can help them improve teaching.” An independent samples *t* test was conducted to compare responses from the identified groups: *Experienced LEAs* and *All LEAs*. Levene’s Test for Equality of Variances was significant, thus the value of *t* for which equal variances are not assumed was used. There was a significant difference in the responses for teachers from the *Experienced LEAs* and *All LEAs*, with $t(7414.779) = 6.813$ (see Tables 23 and 24). Thus, the null hypothesis was rejected. While teachers from the *Experienced LEAs* expressed a higher level of agreement that they receive feedback that can help them

Table 21

Responses for High Professional Standards 2010 – Experienced LEAs and All LEAs

	ExLev	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
ProfStds10	Exp	6375	4.2982	.77821	.00975
	All	89080	4.2619	.83247	.00279

Table 22

Independent Samples Test for High Professional Standards 2010 – Experienced LEAs and All LEAs

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2- tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
ProfStds10	Equal variances assumed	8.093	.004	3.377	95453	.001	.03630	.01075	.01523	.05736
	Equal variances not assumed			3.580	7457.134	.000	.03630	.01014	.01642	.05617

Table 23

Responses for Feedback to Help Improve 2010 – Experienced LEAs and All LEAs

	ExLev	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
FdbkImpr10	Exp	6375	4.0049	.96331	.01206
	All	89086	3.9195	1.01084	.00339

Table 24

Independent Samples Test for Feedback to Help Improve 2010 – Experienced LEAs and All LEAs

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2- tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
FdbkImpr10	Equal variances assumed	55.990	.000	6.535	95459	.000	.08538	.01307	.05977	.11099
	Equal variances not assumed			6.813	7414.779	.000	.08538	.01253	.06082	.10995

improve teaching, the eta squared value was very small (.000486), providing for only .049% of the variance accounted for by the level of experience with the teacher evaluation instrument.

Consistent Evaluation Procedures

As shown in Table 20, there were 6381 responses from the *Experienced LEAs* and *All LEAs* on the 2010 TWC Survey regarding their level of agreement with the statement, “the procedures for teacher performance evaluations are consistent.” An independent samples *t* test was conducted to compare responses from the identified groups: *Experienced LEAs* and *All LEAs*. Levene’s Test for Equality of Variances was significant, thus the value of *t* for which equal variances are not assumed was used. There was a significant difference in the responses for teachers from the *Experienced LEAs* and *All LEAs*, with $t(7432.843) = 7.850$ (see Tables 25 and 26). Thus, the null hypothesis was rejected. While teachers from the *Experienced LEAs* expressed a higher level of agreement that the procedures for teacher performance evaluations are consistent, the eta squared was very small (.000645), providing for only .065% of the variance accounted for by the level of experience with the teacher evaluation instrument.

Reflect on Practice

As shown in Table 20, there were 6351 responses from the *Experienced LEAs* and 88739 responses from *All LEAs* on the 2010 TWC Survey regarding their level of agreement with the statement, “teachers are encouraged to reflect on their own practice.” An independent samples *t* test was conducted to compare responses from the identified groups: *Experienced LEAs* and *All LEAs*. There was a significant difference in the responses for teachers from the *Experienced LEAs* and *All LEAs*, with $t(95088) = 4.810$ (see Tables 27 and 28). Thus, the null hypothesis was rejected. While teachers from the *Experienced LEAs* expressed a higher level of agreement that they are encouraged to reflect on their own practice, the eta squared value was very small

Table 25

Responses for Consistent Evaluation Procedures 2010 – Experienced LEAs and All LEAs

	ExLev	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
EvalConsis10	Exp	6381	3.9923	.97593	.01222
	All	89089	3.8927	1.02888	.00345

Table 26

Independent Samples Test for Consistent Evaluation Procedures 2010 – Experienced LEAs and All LEAs

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2- tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
EvalConsis10	Equal variances assumed	89.903	.000	7.499	95468	.000	.09965	.01329	.07361	.12570
	Equal variances not assumed			7.850	7432.843	.000	.09965	.01269	.07477	.12454

Table 27

Responses for Reflect on Practice 2010 – Experienced LEAs and All LEAs

	ExLev	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Reflect10	Exp	6351	4.0745	.79206	.00994
	All	88739	4.0228	.82968	.00279

Table 28

Independent Samples Test for Reflect on Practice 2010 – Experienced LEAs and All LEAs

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2- tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Reflect10	Equal variances assumed	.691	.406	4.810	95088	.000	.05168	.01075	.03062	.07274
	Equal variances not assumed			5.007	7383.221	.000	.05168	.01032	.03145	.07191

(.000243), providing for only .024% of the variance accounted for by the level of experience with the teacher evaluation instrument.

Try New Things to Improve Instruction

As shown in Table 20, there were 6355 responses from the *Experienced LEAs* and 88739 responses from *All LEAs* on the 2010 TWC Survey regarding their level of agreement with the statement, “teachers are encouraged to try new things to improve instruction.” An independent samples *t* test was conducted to compare responses from the identified groups: *Experienced LEAs* and *All LEAs*. There was a significant difference in the responses for teachers from the *Experienced LEAs* and *All LEAs*, with $t(95092)=8.265$ (see Tables 29 and 30). Thus, the null hypothesis was rejected. While teachers from the *Experienced LEAs* expressed a higher level of agreement that they are encouraged to try new things to improve instruction, the eta squared value was very small (.000718), providing for only .072% of the variance accounted for by the level of experience with the teacher evaluation instrument.

Summary of Findings for Research Question Three

Five independent samples *t* tests were run on the 2010 TWC survey response data from the *Experienced LEAs* and *All LEAs* to determine whether there was a significant difference between these two groups concerning teacher perceptions related to teacher evaluation. There was a significant difference between the responses of both groups for all five TWC Survey items tested with the perceptions of teachers in the group *Experienced LEAs* being more highly favorable than the group *All LEAs*. However, in each case, only a very small percentage of the variance was accounted for by the level of experience with the teacher evaluation instrument and process.

Table 29

Responses for Try New Things to Improve 2010 – Experienced LEAs and All LEAs

	ExLev	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
TryNew10	Exp	6355	4.2069	.72685	.00912
	All	88739	4.1200	.81583	.00274

Table 30

Independent Samples Test for Try New Things to Improve 2010 – Experienced LEAs and All LEAs

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2- tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
TryNew10	Equal variances assumed	1.323	.250	8.265	95092	.000	.08695	.01052	.06633	.10757
	Equal variances not assumed			9.134	7547.870	.000	.08695	.00952	.06829	.10562

Summary

This chapter provided an analysis of the data and the findings related to each of the three research hypotheses. Chapter five will summarize these findings as well as conclusions and suggestions for further study.

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

This chapter provides a summary of the findings of this study, implications for practice, and suggestions for further study.

Statement of the Problem

DuFour and Eaker (1992) stated that “schooling ... cannot be significantly improved unless practitioners are helped to enhance their effectiveness” (p. 11). DuFour and Eaker went on to say that for most school districts, personnel costs are their largest expenditure, so it is only logical that efforts to improve schools would focus on the improvement of instruction. However, they go on to suggest that teacher evaluation as currently practiced in most schools “signals an inspection or a rating exercise rather than an effort to improve instruction” (DuFour & Eaker, 1992, p. 97). Therein lies the crux of the matter: Teacher evaluation has the potential to improve instruction (Oliva et al., 2009; Stronge et al., 2008; Sullivan & Glanz, 2005; Toch & Rothman, 2008), but the practice of teacher evaluation often leaves much to be desired (Astor, 2005; Cooper et al., 2005; Danielson, 2001; DuFour & Eaker, 1992; Gordon et al., 1995; Marshall, 2005, 2009; Peterson, 2000; Schmoker, 2006; Stronge et al., 2008; Zepeda & Ponticell, 1998).

Purpose of the Study

This study was designed to provide preliminary information about possible changes in teacher perceptions toward teacher evaluation in North Carolina following the implementation of a new teacher evaluation instrument and process. The new North Carolina Teacher Evaluation Process (NCTEP) includes many of the elements suggested in the review of literature as being necessary for effective teacher evaluation. These include having a clear set of standards, the use

of a rubric based on those standards, self assessment by the teacher, the use of artifacts, and the use of plans for professional growth (NCSBE, 2008).

Review of the Methodology

In North Carolina, a Teacher Working Conditions Survey is administered every two years to measure teacher perceptions on a variety of topics such as time, facilities and resources, community support and involvement, managing student conduct, teacher leadership, school leadership, professional development, and instructional practices and support (North Carolina's Teacher Working Conditions Initiative, 2010b). These data are used in a variety of settings: policymaking, administrator evaluations, school improvement planning, and general discussions at the school and district level (Hirsch & Sioberg, n.d.; North Carolina's Teacher Working Conditions Initiative, 2010a, 2010c). Because North Carolina administered the Teacher Working Conditions Survey in 2008 and 2010 while the NCTEP was being implemented in phases involving different LEAs (see Table 1), this study used data from identified districts to compare responses to survey items related to teacher evaluation. Districts were aggregated into groups based on their level of experience with the NCTEP at the time of the 2008 and 2010 survey administration (see Table 2). There were three relevant items on the 2008 TWC Survey and two additional relevant items on the 2010 TWC Survey, thus the following were the research questions that guided the study.

1. Is there a difference in the perceptions of teachers in the *Phase I Only* LEAs as expressed in the 2010 TWC Survey as compared to the 2008 TWC Survey regarding whether
 - a. They are held to high professional standards for delivering instruction?
 - b. They receive feedback that can help them improve instruction?

- c. Procedures for teacher evaluation are consistent?
- 2. Is there a difference in the perceptions of teachers in the *Experienced LEAs* and the perceptions of teachers in the *Phase III Only* LEAs as expressed in the 2010 TWC Survey regarding whether
 - a. They are held to high professional standards for delivering instruction?
 - b. They receive feedback that can help them improve instruction?
 - c. Procedures for teacher evaluation are consistent?
 - d. They are encouraged to reflect on their own practice?
 - e. They are encouraged to try new things to improve instruction?
- 3. Is there a difference in the perceptions of teachers in the *Experienced LEAs* and the perceptions of teachers in the state as a whole (*All LEAs*) as expressed in the 2010 TWC Survey regarding whether
 - a. They are held to high professional standards for delivering instruction?
 - b. They receive feedback that can help them improve instruction?
 - c. Procedures for teacher evaluation are consistent?
 - d. They are encouraged to reflect on their own practice?
 - e. They are encouraged to try new things to improve instruction?

Three dependent samples *t* tests were conducted to compare responses from the *Phase I Only LEAs* to see if there was a change from 2008 – when those districts had not yet begun to use the NCTEP – to 2010 (see Figure 1). Five independent samples *t* tests were conducted using the data from 2010 to compare the responses from the *Experienced LEAs* to those of the *Phase III Only LEAs* and to compare the responses from the *Experienced LEAs* to those of *All LEAs* (see Figure 2).

Summary of the Findings and Conclusions

To examine the research questions, the following null hypotheses were used:

1. There is no significant difference in the perceptions of teachers in the *Phase I Only* LEAs as expressed in the 2010 TWC Survey as compared to the 2008 TWC Survey regarding whether
 - a. They are held to high professional standards for delivering instruction.
 - b. They receive feedback that can help them improve instruction.
 - c. Procedures for teacher evaluation are consistent.
2. There is no significant difference in the perceptions of teachers in the *Experienced LEAs* and the perceptions of teachers in the *Phase III Only* LEAs as expressed in the 2010 TWC Survey regarding whether
 - a. They are held to high professional standards for delivering instruction.
 - b. They receive feedback that can help them improve instruction.
 - c. Procedures for teacher evaluation are consistent.
 - d. They are encouraged to reflect on their own practice.
 - e. They are encouraged to try new things to improve instruction.
3. There is no significant difference in the perceptions of teachers in the *Experienced LEAs* and the perceptions of teachers in the state as a whole (*All LEAs*) as expressed in the 2010 TWC Survey regarding whether
 - a. They are held to high professional standards for delivering instruction.
 - b. They receive feedback that can help them improve instruction.
 - c. Procedures for teacher evaluation are consistent.
 - d. They are encouraged to reflect on their own practice.

- e. They are encouraged to try new things to improve instruction.

Findings and Conclusions for Null Hypothesis One

Three dependent samples *t* tests were run on the 2008 and 2010 TWC Survey data for the *Phase I Only LEAs*. In each case, the null hypothesis was accepted; there was no significant difference between the responses of the identified districts from 2008, when they had not yet begun to use the NCTEP, and 2010, when they had been using the new teacher evaluation instrument and process for almost two years. These findings were inconclusive; several possible conclusions could be drawn from these results.

One conclusion is that the NCTEP did not make a difference in teacher perceptions in these LEAs because these LEAs voluntarily participated in Phase I of the new instrument, which may indicate that teacher evaluation was already highly valued in these districts. Alternately, if these districts frequently participated in innovative projects, teachers may have become accustomed to experiencing changes, and some teachers may have developed a *wait-and-see attitude*. It will be important to continue to monitor the impact of the new system in order to determine whether the system can be credited with improvements.

Another conclusion is that the NCTEP did not make a difference in teacher perceptions in these LEAs because a longer period of implementation would be needed to affect teacher attitudes. According to Fullan (1991), “effective change takes time. ... bringing about institutional reforms can take five or more years” (p. 106). Because the *Phase I Only LEAs* had only been using the new process and instrument for approximately two years, the change may not have been sufficiently integrated to have a significant impact on teacher attitudes. Since the new evaluation policy was designed to include self-assessment, reflection, and the use of artifacts, teachers were to have a more active role in the evaluation process. After only two

years, teachers may not have fully understood what this could mean for their own professional growth. As these LEAs have more time for implementation, additional training on and experience with the process and instrument could help teachers and administrators more fully utilize the professional growth aspects and teacher engagement in the process that the State Board hoped to foster (NCSBE, 2008).

Finally, the NCTEP may not have made a difference in teacher perceptions in these LEAs due to poor or inconsistent implementation or because the instrument or the process used was not sufficiently different from the prior evaluation process and instrument. Although there were several major changes in the teacher evaluation policy, some aspects of the process – such as developing a professional growth plan and having a specified number of observations – remained the same. The extent to which the new aspects of the policy such as the teacher self-assessment, the rubric, the use of artifacts, and a greater focus on post-observation conferencing were fully implemented likely varied greatly from school to school and would be dependent upon the actions and attitudes of the school administrator.

Findings for Null Hypothesis Two

Five independent samples *t* tests were run on the 2010 TWC Survey data for the *Experienced LEAs* and the *Phase III Only LEAs*. In each case, the null hypothesis was rejected; the perceptions of teachers from the *Experienced LEAs* were significantly higher than the perceptions of teachers from the *Phase III Only LEAs* on all five identified TWC Survey items. However, in each case, only a very small percentage of the variance was explained by the level of experience with the NCTEP.

Findings for Null Hypothesis Three

Five independent samples *t* tests were run on the 2010 TWC Survey data for the *Experienced LEAs* and *All LEAs*. In each case, the null hypothesis was rejected; the perceptions of teachers from the *Experienced LEAs* were significantly higher than the perceptions of teachers from the state as a whole on all five identified TWC Survey items. However, in each case, only a very small percentage of the variance was explained by the level of experience with the NCTEP.

Conclusions for Null Hypotheses Two and Three

Although there was a significant difference in each case when comparing the responses of teachers from the *Experienced LEAs* to the *Phase III Only LEAs* or *All LEAs*, the effect size was very small. Thus, although the differences in responses are greater than what could be expected to occur by chance, the level of experience with the new teacher evaluation instrument and process can only account for a small portion of those differences. This leads to several possible conclusions and considerations.

As in Research Question One, the *Experienced LEAs* included districts that volunteered to participate in the pilot and in the first two years of implementation. This may indicate a higher emphasis on teacher evaluation in those districts, which may have contributed to the higher level of agreement on the identified survey items. However, because all of the LEAs in the state had been informed of the new instrument, standards, and process, attitudes toward teacher evaluation across the state may have been positively influenced, even in LEAs not yet participating in the new evaluation process.

Because the study was conducted after the new instrument and process had only been in place for two to three years in the *Experienced LEAs*, the slightly higher attitudes toward teacher

evaluation may indicate that, over time, teacher perceptions could continue to become more positive. Another possibility is that aggregating the data by LEAs as a whole rather than by schools could have masked some variations among schools within LEAs. Additionally, changes in perception may have been slow to emerge due to a wait-and-see attitude on the part of teachers or due to poor or inconsistent implementation as described earlier. It will be interesting to see whether teacher perceptions of evaluation will continue to become more positive over time as the new teacher evaluation process and instrument are used statewide.

Implications for Practice

The review of literature in chapter two identified a number of processes and elements necessary for effective teacher evaluation, many of which are included in the North Carolina Teacher Evaluation Process. Based on that review of literature and the findings of this study, it appears that North Carolina has made a step in the right direction with the development and implementation of its new teacher evaluation policy, but whether these changes bear fruit may very well depend upon the faithfulness of implementation at the school and district level.

The first step that North Carolina took in its new direction for teacher evaluation was to make sure that the teacher evaluation instrument was a rubric based on clearly-defined standards (McREL, 2009; NCSBE, 2008; North Carolina Professional Teaching Standards Commission [NCPTSC], 2007). Having an instrument based on standards, while not sufficient to guarantee a successful teacher evaluation system, is a necessary first component (Acheson & Gall, 1997, 2003; Davis et al., 2000; Marshall, 2005; Robles, 2007; Stronge & Tucker, 1999; Tucker, 1997, 2001; Webb & Norton, 2009). In addition, the use of a rubric was advised due to its ability to help clearly define and inform practice (Marshall, 2005; Toch & Rothman, 2008; Webb & Norton, 2009) and to judge performance (Marshall, 2005). Because the use of the *Rubric* is

required by policy, the recommendation is that teachers and school administrators familiarize themselves with the *Rubric* and the *Professional Teaching Standards* so that they can complete all steps in the teacher evaluation process while remaining faithful to the intent of the policy.

The review of literature showed that effective teacher evaluation must begin with an orientation (Beers, 2006; Mooney & Mausbach, 2008; Ovando & Ramirez, 2007; Tucker, 2001) and pre-observation conferences (Acheson & Gall, 1997, 2003; Beers, 2006; Garth-Young, 2007; McCann et al., 2005; Williamson & Blackburn, 2009) to help spell out the evaluator's expectations. North Carolina teacher evaluation policy requires that principals provide initial training as well as an annual orientation to the process for all teachers and that they hold pre-observation conferences with individual teachers prior to the teacher's first observation for that school year (NCSBE, 2008). It is recommended that the state continue to require these activities and that school and district administrators ensure that these are taking place.

Another element of effective teacher evaluation is setting goals for the evaluation process (Acheson & Gall, 1997, 2003; Howard & McColskey, 2001; La Masa, 2005; Mooney & Mausbach, 2008; Stronge et al., 2008; Tellez, 2008; Webb & Norton, 2009; Williamson & Blackburn, 2009). Although the North Carolina policy requires the setting of individual growth goals via a Professional Development Plan, there is limited guidance as to the content of the pre-observation conference (Public Schools of North Carolina, 2010). In order to facilitate goal setting, it is recommended that the state revise their expectations as to what constitutes an effective pre-observation conference to include clear references to goal-setting for the observation. Until this occurs, it is recommended that individual LEAs or schools ensure that this takes place.

A review of research also indicated that observations need to be frequent (Acheson & Gall, 1997; Cotton, 2003; La Masa, 2005; Marzano et al., 2005; Nordheim, 2006; Robles, 2007; Webster, 1994), though there is no agreed-upon number of observations. The North Carolina policy calls for four 45-minute observations for probationary teachers – those teachers who have not yet achieved career status – and three for career teachers during at least one year of each five-year licensure cycle (NCSBE, 2008; Public Schools of North Carolina, 2009). During the other four years, career teachers must receive at least one observation. The policy, however, provides these as minimum requirements and does not preclude additional observations. The NC Department of Public Instruction has provided on their web site a form that can be used for short, informal visits (Public Schools of North Carolina, n.d.-b), but there is no requirement to use it. Based on the recommendations from the literature reviewed, holding additional observations would likely be advantageous; however time constraints may make this difficult.

The North Carolina policy also calls for the use of artifacts (NCSBE, 2008). Using additional data sources allows for a clearer picture of what is occurring in the classroom than can be gained by classroom observations alone (Brinko, 1993; Duke & Stiggins, 1986; Glickman et al., 2009, 2010; Goldrick, 2002; Howard & McColskey, 2001; Irvin et al., 2007; Kimball, 2002; Koops & Winsor, 2006; Mooney & Mausbach, 2008; Oliva et al., 2009; Peterson, 2000; Peterson & Peterson, 2006; Ponticell & Zepeda, 2004; Stronge et al., 2008; Stronge & Tucker, 1999; Webb & Norton, 2009). It is recommended that this practice be continued and that principals and teachers seek to use these additional artifacts to engage in conversations about teaching and learning that go beyond the traditional pre- and post-observation conference.

Principals in the North Carolina public school system are required to hold post-observation conferences after each observation (NCSBE, 2008). Such conferences are an

important component of the teacher evaluation process (Acheson & Gall, 1997; Beers, 2006; Blasé & Blasé, 2001; Brinko, 1993; Buckingham & Coffman, 1999; Cotton, 2003; Ebmeier & Nicklaus, 1999; Garth-Young, 2007; Goldrick, 2002; Gregoire, 2009; Howard & McColskey, 2001; Irvin et al., 2007; Kelly, 2006; Kimball, 2002; La Masa, 2005; Lansman, 2006; McCann et al., 2005; McGreal, 1989; Ovando, 2005; Ovando & Harris, 1993; Ponticell & Zepeda, 2004; Tellez, 2008; Tucker, 2001; Wang & Day, 2002). During these conferences, the principal should provide relevant feedback to the teacher and hold collegial conversations that help to promote professional growth (Acheson & Gall, 2003; Beers, 2006; Blasé & Blasé, 2001; Brinko, 1993; Howard & McColskey, 2001). North Carolina's policy requires that these post-observation conferences be held in the teacher's classroom, which is supported by the literature reviewed (Acheson & Gall, 2003; Beers, 2006). Because of the importance of feedback and an emphasis on professional growth, it is recommended that principals make the time to hold these conferences and allow and even encourage the teacher to take an active role.

One major difference the current North Carolina policy has over the prior policy is an emphasis on self-assessment designed to give teachers a stronger voice (NCSBE, 2008); this is supported by research and expert opinion (Costa & Kallick, 2000; Drake & McBride, 2000; Glickman et al., 2009, 2010; Koops & Winsor, 2006; Robles, 2007; Ross & Bruce, 2007; Tang & Chow, 2007; Tucker et al., 2003). However, teachers – who were previously passive participants in the process – may need training and support to become comfortable in that role.

One element of effective teacher evaluation that is vital but often lacking is a focus on student learning (Allen & Palaich, 2000; Colby, 2001; Diamond & Handi, 2002; Duke & Stiggins, 1986; Goldrick, 2002; Ovando, 2005; Resnick, 2004; Sanders & Horn, 1998; Sanders & Rivers, 1996; Sinnema & Robinson, 2007; Toch & Rothman, 2008; Webb & Norton, 2009;

Webster, 1994). Although not overtly stated in the policy (NCSBE, 2008), there is a clear emphasis on student learning in the *Rubric* (McREL, 2009) and in the Professional Teaching Standards on which it is based (NCPTSC, 2007; NCSBE, 2008). It is recommended that school and district administrators maintain that focus throughout the evaluation process by making sure that student outcomes, rather than teacher actions, are the primary measure of success.

With most process changes, success is unlikely without sufficient training; this is especially true for changes in teacher evaluation processes (Claudet, 1999; Kimball, 2002; Sullivan, Shulman, & Glanz, 2002). Sullivan et al. (2002) indicated that insufficient training could result in the evaluation process being viewed as “simply an evaluative experience and not as an opportunity for professional growth and development” (p. 469). Kimball specifically mentioned training for school administrators in providing meaningful feedback. In addition to training, Claudet recommended truly listening to teachers in the midst of the change process to assess their needs and develop ways to assist them in moving forward. Although all districts received initial training in a training-of-trainers model prior to implementation, additional training and support over time, both from the NC Department of Public Instruction and within the individual districts would help increase the level of faithful implementation over time.

In a study of an alternative teacher evaluation system in New York, Sullivan, Shulman, and Glanz (2002) found that the most successful implementation was in a school where the principal was not only sufficiently trained but fully committed to the process. That kind of commitment, along with “clear accountability for implementation” (Sullivan et al., 2002, p. 475), were listed as two of the crucial factors for success in large-scale change. It is recommended that district administrators help provide support and encouragement to school administrators so that there is a clear commitment to the process from the top.

As Acheson and Gall (1997) stated, “the principal's daily practices related to teacher quality and teacher evaluation are far more influential than any teacher evaluation policy or manual (i.e., the walk is more powerful than the talk),” (p. 71). According to Glickman et al. (2010), research and theory on adult learning is an important component of the knowledge base for instructional supervision” (p. 50). Thus, in addition to further in-service training of principals specific to the teacher evaluation process, current principals and assistant principals as well as students in leadership preparation programs could benefit from professional development in the value of and purposes for teacher evaluation as well as information on how adults learn.

Kimball (2002) also discussed the need for accountability in the teacher evaluation process. In Kimball’s study, a lack of “accountability for evaluation quality and consistency” (p. 264) was one of the factors that led to problems with the implementation of new teacher evaluation systems in the three districts studied. Bradshaw’s (2002) study of teacher evaluation in North Carolina found that a lack of monitoring led to inconsistent and ineffective implementation. Thus, closer monitoring and quality control are recommended. Unfortunately, monitoring the level of implementation of a state-wide change in teacher evaluation processes would be difficult at the best of times, and it would be even more difficult during the current budget shortfall in North Carolina due to an expected decrease in the number of people available to conduct such monitoring. This only heightens the importance of administrator commitment and training for all participants.

Although this study was somewhat inconclusive with no significant difference found between the responses from the *Phase I Only LEAs* in 2008 to those in 2010 on the identified TWC Survey items related to teacher evaluation and significant but small differences in responses in 2010 between the *Experienced LEAs* and the *Phase III Only LEAs* and between the

Experienced LEAs and *All LEAs*, the results are promising. While the slight positive differences found between the experienced and inexperienced LEAs in 2010 require caution, the process is still new and has the potential to improve teacher perceptions of evaluation over time, provided that training and support are provided, and that continued faithful implementation occurs.

Recommendations for Further Study

Because there was no significant difference in perceptions of teachers in the *Phase I Only LEAs* between the 2008 and 2010 TWC Surveys, and because the significant differences found between the responses from the *Experienced LEAs* and the *Phase III Only LEAs* and between the *Experienced LEAs* and *All LEAs* showed that only a small percentage of the variance was explained by the level of experience with the NCTEP, several possible follow-up studies could provide clarification and more in-depth information.

Additional insight might be gained by repeating this study after allowing for a longer period of implementation of the new teacher evaluation process. Since the training for LEAs was likely updated over the three-year rollout, and because of the wide variety of experience with the instrument prior to the 2010 TWC Survey, a study of the 59 *Phase III Only LEAs* conducted several years from now to compare responses from 2010 to a future TWC Survey administration would provide a more robust study. Benefits of using that group include having a larger number of available responses, a narrower range of experience levels, a more similar set of training experiences, and, assuming that all five of the relevant TWC Survey items are used in future surveys, the opportunity to measure perceptions on all five of those items. The study would be strengthened if only the responses from teachers who had been with those 59 LEAs during the entire implementation period could be used.

While this study considered the effect of the new teacher evaluation process on teacher perceptions, another area that needs to be explored is whether the new teacher evaluation process has had any effect on other desirable outcomes such as improved instruction, improved student achievement, teacher retention, or a reduction in the number of incompetent teachers. One suggestion would be to conduct a mixed-methods case study involving quantitative aspects, such as an analysis of student data as compared to teacher perceptions as reported by the TWC Survey, and qualitative aspects, such as teacher and administrator interviews and observations and a review of records.

A number of factors may have had an effect on the teacher perceptions of evaluation analyzed in this study; these include the quality of implementation, teacher attributes, and school or district-level effects. Consideration of each of these factors opens up other possible avenues for additional research.

Quality of Implementation

It could be helpful to follow up this study to find out whether districts are implementing the process as designed and to see if the degree of faithfulness to the design is related to the level of improved teacher perceptions and/or student achievement – especially after a longer period of implementation. A survey methodology could be used to identify schools and districts for study, followed by a qualitative case study that involved observations and interviews to determine the level of faithfulness to the process and actual teacher attitudes. This could be complimented by a review of student achievement data in the identified schools.

Another aspect of the quality of implementation worthy of consideration is whether the perceptions of those who developed the NCTEP regarding the purpose for and desired practices of each element of the process are related to the perceptions of those in charge of implementation

at the school and district level. A study of this relationship could involve the development and administration of a questionnaire that specifically addresses the elements of the NCTEP or take the form of a qualitative study with interviews and focus groups.

Teacher Attributes

Another consideration is whether specific teacher attributes have an impact on teacher perceptions of the evaluation process. One possible study would involve disaggregating the TWC Survey data to compare the responses of teachers identified as beginning teachers and those identified as veteran teachers in the *Phase I Only LEAs* in 2008 to see whether the level of teaching experience is related to changes in perceptions between responses of those groups from 2008 and 2010.

Another avenue of research would be to repeat this study, controlling by grade span – elementary, middle, and high school. Ruckel and Hennes (1994) found that elementary teachers were more likely than middle or high school teachers to credit teacher evaluations with improved instruction, and Sand (2005) reported that teachers and administrators at all levels, but particularly those at the secondary level, did not agree that teacher evaluation improves instruction, so a study that compares teacher perceptions by grade level could provide additional information about the differing attitudes toward teacher evaluation or possibly differing degrees of implementation at elementary, middle, and high schools.

District-Level Effects

District-level support is vital to the success of any major school-level initiative. Painter (2000a) and Tucker (1997) asserted that principals want and need support from central administrators in the evaluation of teachers. A qualitative study, possibly involving surveys and interviews of teachers, school administrators, and district leaders could investigate the degree to

which a positive attitude and support on the part of district leadership regarding implementation of the new teacher evaluation process affects school administrator and teacher attitudes toward the process.

School-Level Effects

Because teacher evaluation occurs at the school level, there may be a number of school-level factors that affect teacher perceptions toward evaluation. Since the current study explored data at the LEA level, it would be informative to repeat this study, disaggregating by school rather than by LEA. An analysis of the data by school could uncover differences within LEAs that were masked in the aggregate.

One school level factor that could be considered is the size of the school and the number of teachers each administrator is required to evaluate. The TWC Survey data could be disaggregated by the ratio of administrators to teachers to see whether teacher perceptions are different in schools in which the administrator ostensibly has more time to devote to the evaluation process.

Another school-level factor that could affect teacher perceptions is the attitude of the principal. Glickman et al. (2010) asserted that the principal's beliefs regarding supervision determine their actions. One way to investigate the effect of administrator attitudes would be to conduct a qualitative study, surveying and interviewing teachers and school administrators to investigate the degree to which a positive attitude and support on the part of the school administrator regarding implementation of the new teacher evaluation process affects teacher attitudes toward the process.

Another study that could provide information on the school-level factors that affect perceptions toward teacher evaluation would be a case study involving specific teachers within

one or more schools who have different levels of agreement regarding the identified TWC Survey items. Surveys, interviews, or focus groups could be used to determine possible factors that influence those teachers' perceptions. According to Berry et al. (2008), "teachers' perceptions of working conditions may vary more inside of schools than between them" (p. 2), thus, a study that discovers the perspectives of teachers based on their perceptions of identified working conditions related to teacher evaluation rather than on their teaching site may offer some additional insight into what teachers value in the evaluation process in general and in North Carolina's process in particular.

Summary

Beers (2006) stated

The expression "If you always do what you have always done, you will always get what you have always gotten" is not true regarding learning and teaching. If we continue to use the same procedures year after year, we will get less than we have always gotten. To improve, we have to find a better way. (p. 5)

One hope for a better way is to improve the evaluation of teachers with a focus on reflection, growth, and instructional improvement. In the state of North Carolina, recent changes to the teacher evaluation policy have incorporated research-based processes and instruments in an effort to do just that. As indicated earlier, teacher evaluation has great potential as an impetus for teacher professional growth and instructional improvement. However, for the promise of this better way to be fulfilled, leaders at the state, district, and school level must be committed to faithful implementation of all aspects of the policy. Although the results of this study must be considered with caution, there is reason to be optimistic. As districts across North Carolina continue to implement the new teacher evaluation process, additional research will be needed to

see whether the changes are having a positive effect – not only on teacher perceptions but also on administrator perceptions, the quality of classroom instruction, and student achievement.

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APPENDIX A: NORTH CAROLINA STATE BOARD OF EDUCATION

POLICY MANUAL

Policy Identification

Priority: Twenty-First Century Professionals

Category: Qualifications and Evaluation

Policy ID Number: TCP-C-004

Policy Title: Policy adopting the North Carolina Teacher Evaluation Rubric and Process for Teacher Evaluation

Current Policy Date: 10/02/2008

Other Historical Information: Previous Board dates: 07/07/1987, 07/11/1996, 11/05/1998

Statutory Reference: GS 115C-333

Administrative Procedures Act (APA) Reference Number and Category:

Purpose

The intended purpose of the North Carolina Teacher Evaluation Process is to assess the teacher's performance in relation to the North Carolina Professional Teaching Standards and to design a plan for professional growth. The principal or a designee (hereinafter "principal") will conduct the evaluation process in which the teacher will actively participate through the use of self-assessment, reflection, presentation of artifacts, and classroom demonstration(s).

A local board shall use the North Carolina Professional Teaching Standards and North Carolina Teacher Evaluation Process unless it develops an alternative evaluation that is properly validated and that includes standards and criteria similar to those in the North Carolina Professional Teaching Standards and North Carolina Teacher Evaluation Process.

Process

The North Carolina Teacher Evaluation Process shall include the following components:

Component 1: Training

Before participating in the evaluation process, all teachers, principals and peer evaluators must complete training on the evaluation process.

Component 2: Orientation

Within two weeks of a teacher's first day of work in any school year, the principal will provide the teacher with a copy of or directions for obtaining access to a copy of:

- A. The Rubric for Evaluating North Carolina Teachers;
- B. This policy; and
- C. A schedule for completing all the components of the evaluation

process. Copies may be provided by electronic means.

Component 3: Teacher Self-Assessment

Using the Rubric for Evaluating North Carolina Teachers, the teacher shall rate his or her own performance at the beginning of the year and reflect on his or her performance throughout the year.

Component 4: Pre-Observation Conference

Before the first formal observation, the principal shall meet with the teacher to discuss the teacher's self-assessment based on the Rubric for Evaluating North Carolina Teachers, the teacher's most recent professional growth plan, and the lesson(s) to be observed. The teacher will provide the principal with a written description of the lesson(s). The goal of this conference is to prepare the principal for the observation. Pre-Observation conferences are not required for subsequent observations.

Component 5: Observations

- A. A formal observation shall last at least forty-five minutes or an entire class period
- B. Probationary Teachers
 - 1. The principal shall conduct at least three formal observations of all probationary teachers.
 - 2. A peer shall conduct one formal observation of a probationary teacher.
- C. Career Status Teachers
 - 1. Career teachers shall be evaluated annually, unless the LEA establishes a different evaluation cycle for career teachers.
 - 2. During the year in which a career status teacher participates in a summative evaluation, the principal shall conduct at least three observations, including at least one formal observation.

During observations, the principal and peer (in the case of a probationary teacher) shall note the teacher's performance in relationship to the applicable Standards on the Rubric for Evaluating North Carolina Teachers.

Component 6: Post-Observation Conference

The principal shall conduct a post-observation conference no later than ten school days after each formal observation. During the post-observation conference, the principal and teacher shall discuss and document on the Rubric the strengths and weaknesses of the teacher's performance during the observed lesson.

Component 7: Summary Evaluation Conference and Scoring the Teacher Summary Rating Form

Prior to the end of the school year and in accordance with LEA timelines, the principal shall conduct a summary evaluation conference with the teacher. During the summary evaluation conference, the principal and teacher shall discuss the teacher's self-assessment, the teacher's most recent Professional Growth Plan, the components of the North Carolina Teacher Evaluation Process completed during the year, classroom observations, artifacts submitted or collected during the evaluation process and other evidence of the teacher's performance on the Rubric.

At the conclusion of the North Carolina Teacher Evaluation Process, the principal

- shall: A. Give a rating for each Element in the Rubric;
- B. Make a written comment on any Element marked "Not Demonstrated";
- C. Give an overall rating of each Standard in the Rubric;
- D. Provide the teacher with the opportunity to add comments to the Teacher Summary Rating Form;
- E. Review the completed Teacher Summary Rating Form with the teacher; and
- F. Secure the teacher's signature on the Record of Teacher Evaluation Activities and Teacher Summary Rating Form.

Component 8: Professional Development Plans

Individual Growth Plans

Teachers who are rated at least "Proficient" on all the Standards on the Teacher Summary Rating Form shall develop an Individual Growth Plan designed to improve performance on specifically identified Standards and Elements.

Monitored Growth Plans

A teacher shall be placed on a Monitored Growth Plan whenever he or she:

- A. Is rated "Developing" on one or more Standards on the Teacher Summary Rating Form; and
- B. Is not recommended for dismissal, demotion or nonrenewal.

A Monitored Growth Plan shall, at a minimum, identify the Standards and Elements to be improved, the goals to be accomplished and the activities the teacher should undertake to achieve Proficiency, and a timeline which allows the teacher one school year to achieve Proficiency. A Monitored Growth Plan that meets those criteria shall be deemed to satisfy the requirements of N.C. Gen. Stat. § 115C-333(b).

Directed Growth Plans

A teacher shall be placed on a Directed Growth Plan whenever he or she:

- A. Is rated
 1. “Not Demonstrated” on any Standard on the Teacher Summary Rating Form; or
 2. “Developing” on one or more Standards on the Teacher Summary Rating Form for two sequential years: and
- B. Is not recommended for dismissal, demotion or nonrenewal.

The Directed Growth Plan shall, at a minimum, identify the Standards and Elements to be improved, the goals to be accomplished, the activities the teacher shall complete to achieve Proficiency, a timeline for achieving Proficiency within one school year or such shorter time as determined by the LEA. A Directed Growth Plan that meets those criteria shall be deemed to satisfy the requirements of N.C. Gen. Stat. § 115C-333(b).

Component 9: Effective Dates and Effect on Licensing and Career Status

Effective with the 2008-2009 school year, LEAs may evaluate teachers using this policy.

Effective with the 2010-2011 school year, all teachers in North Carolina will be evaluated using this policy unless a local board develops an alternative evaluation that is properly validated and that includes standards and criteria similar to those in the North Carolina Professional Teaching Standards and North Carolina Teacher Evaluation Process in which case the local board shall use that instrument.

Beginning Teachers

Effective 2010-2011, beginning teachers must be rated “Proficient” on all five North Carolina Professional Teaching Standards on the most recent Teacher Summary Rating Form in order to be eligible for the Standard Professional 2 License.

Probationary Teachers

Effective 2010-2011, a principal must rate a probationary teacher as “Proficient” on all five North Carolina Professional Teaching Standards on the most recent Teacher Summary Rating Form before recommending that teacher for career status.

Available from <http://www.dpi.state.nc.us/docs/profdev/training/teacher/teacher-evaluation.pdf>.

APPENDIX B: NORTH CAROLINA PROFESSIONAL TEACHING STANDARDS

North Carolina Professional Teaching Standards



Every public school student will graduate from high school, globally competitive for work and postsecondary education and prepared for life in the 21st Century.

Mission of the North Carolina State Board of Education, August 2006

The North Carolina State Board of Education charged the North Carolina Professional Teaching Standards Commission to align the Core Standards for the Teaching Profession (1997) with the newly adopted mission. To this end, Commission members, 16 practicing educators from across the state, considered what teachers need to know and be able to do in 21st Century schools. This document contains the aligned standards adopted by the North Carolina State Board of Education in June 2007.

Why are these Standards important to you? The North Carolina Professional Teaching Standards are the basis for teacher preparation, teacher evaluation, and professional development. Colleges and universities are changing their programs; a new teacher evaluation instrument is being created; and professional development is taking on a new look based on these Standards. Each of these will include the skills and knowledge needed for the 21st Century teaching and learning. The document is provided in this format so that it may be kept in a plan book to guide instruction as we move forward in the 21st Century.

A NEW VISION OF TEACHING

The different demands on 21st Century education dictate new roles for teachers in their classrooms and schools. The following defines what teachers need to know and do to be able to teach students in the 21st Century:

- Leadership among the staff and with the administration is shared in order to bring consensus and common, shared ownership of the vision and purpose of work of the school. Teachers are valued for the contributions they make to their classroom and the school.
- Teachers make the content they teach engaging, relevant, and meaningful to students' lives.
- Teachers can no longer cover material; they, along with their students, uncover solutions. They teach existing core content that is revised to include skills like critical thinking, problem solving, and information and communications technology (ICT) literacy.
- In their classrooms, teachers facilitate instruction encouraging all students to use 21st Century skills so they discover how to learn, innovate, collaborate, and communicate their ideas.
- The 21st Century content (global awareness, civic literacy, financial literacy, and health awareness) is included in the core content areas.
- Subjects and related projects are integrated among disciplines and involve relationships with the home and community.
- Teachers are reflective about their practice and include assessments that are authentic and structured and demonstrate student understanding.
- Teachers demonstrate the value of lifelong learning and encourage their students to learn and grow.





STANDARD I: TEACHERS DEMONSTRATE LEADERSHIP

Teachers lead in their classrooms.

Teachers demonstrate leadership by taking responsibility for the progress of all students to ensure that they graduate from high school, are globally competitive for work and postsecondary education, and are prepared for life in the 21st Century. Teachers communicate this vision to their students. Using a variety of data sources, they organize, plan, and set goals that meet the needs of the individual student and the class. Teachers use various types of assessment data during the school year to evaluate student progress and to make adjustments to the teaching and learning process. They establish a safe, orderly environment, and create a culture that empowers students to collaborate and become lifelong learners.

- Take responsibility for all students' learning
- Communicate vision to students
- Use data to organize, plan, and set goals
- Use a variety of assessment data throughout the year to evaluate progress
- Establish a safe and orderly environment
- Empower students

Teachers demonstrate leadership in the school.

Teachers work collaboratively with school personnel to create a professional learning community. They analyze and use local, state, and national data to develop goals and strategies in the school improvement plan that enhances student learning and teacher working conditions. Teachers provide input in determining the school budget and in the selection of professional development that meets the needs of students and their own professional growth. They participate in the hiring process and collaborate with their colleagues to mentor and support teachers to improve the effectiveness of their departments or grade levels.

- Work collaboratively with all school personnel to create a professional learning community
- Analyze data
- Develop goals and strategies through the school improvement plan
- Assist in determining school budget and professional development
- Participate in hiring process
- Collaborate with colleagues to mentor and support teachers to improve effectiveness

Teachers lead the teaching profession.

Teachers strive to improve the teaching profession. They contribute to the establishment of positive working conditions in their school. They actively participate in and advocate for decision-making structures in education and government that take advantage of the expertise of teachers. Teachers promote professional growth for all educators and collaborate with their colleagues to improve the profession.

- Strive to improve the profession
- Contribute to the establishment of positive working conditions
- Participate in decision-making structures
- Promote professional growth

Teachers advocate for schools and students.

Teachers advocate for positive change in policies and practices affecting student learning. They participate in the implementation of initiatives to improve the education of students.

- Advocate for positive change in policies and practices affecting student learning
- Participate in the implementation of initiatives to improve education

Teachers demonstrate high ethical standards.

Teachers demonstrate ethical principles including honesty, integrity, fair treatment, and respect for others. Teachers uphold the Code of Ethics for North Carolina Educators (effective June 1, 1997) and the Standards for Professional Conduct adopted April 1, 1998. (www.ncptsc.org)

- Demonstrate ethical principles
- Uphold the Code of Ethics and Standards for the Professional Conduct



STANDARD II: TEACHERS ESTABLISH A RESPECTFUL ENVIRONMENT FOR A DIVERSE POPULATION OF STUDENTS

Teachers provide an environment in which each child has a positive, nurturing relationship with caring adults.

Teachers encourage an environment that is inviting, respectful, supportive, inclusive, and flexible.

- Encourage an environment that is inviting, respectful, supportive, inclusive, and flexible

Teachers embrace diversity in the school community and in the world.

Teachers demonstrate their knowledge of the history of diverse cultures and their role in shaping global issues. They actively select materials and develop lessons that counteract stereotypes and incorporate histories and contributions of all cultures.

Teachers recognize the influence of race, ethnicity, gender, religion, and other aspects of culture on a student's development and personality.

Teachers strive to understand how a student's culture and background may influence his or her school performance. Teachers consider and incorporate different points of view in their instruction.

- Demonstrate knowledge of diverse cultures
- Select materials and develop lessons that counteract stereotypes and incorporate contributions
- Recognize the influences on a child's development, personality, and performance
- Consider and incorporate different points of view

Teachers treat students as individuals.

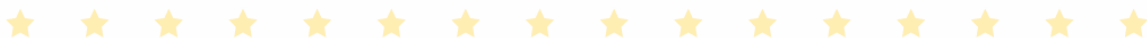
Teachers maintain high expectations, including graduation from high school, for students of all backgrounds. Teachers appreciate the differences and value the contributions of each student in the learning environment by building positive, appropriate relationships.

- Maintain high expectations for all students
- Appreciate differences and value contributions by building positive, appropriate relationships

Teachers adapt their teaching for the benefit of students with special needs.

Teachers collaborate with the range of support specialists to help meet the special needs of all students. Through inclusion and other models of effective practice, teachers engage students to ensure that their needs are met.

- Collaborate with specialists
- Engage students and ensure they meet the needs of their students through inclusion and other models of effective practice



Teachers work collaboratively with the families and significant adults in the lives of their students.

Teachers recognize that educating children is a shared responsibility involving the school, parents or guardians, and the community. Teachers improve communication and collaboration between the school and the home and community in order to promote trust and understanding and build partnerships with all segments of the school community. Teachers seek solutions to overcome cultural and economic obstacles that may stand in the way of effective family and community involvement in the education of their students.

- Improve communication and collaboration between the school and the home and community
- Promote trust and understanding and build partnerships with school community
- Seek solutions to overcome obstacles that prevent family and community involvement

III STANDARD III: TEACHERS KNOW THE CONTENT THEY TEACH

Teachers align their instruction with the North Carolina Standard Course of Study.

In order to enhance the *North Carolina Standard Course of Study*, teachers investigate the content standards developed by professional organizations in their specialty area. They develop and apply strategies to make the curriculum rigorous and relevant for all students and provide a balanced curriculum that enhances literacy skills.

Elementary teachers have explicit and thorough preparation in literacy instruction. Middle and high school teachers incorporate literacy instruction within the content area or discipline.

- Teach the *North Carolina Standard Course of Study*
- Develop and apply strategies to make the curriculum rigorous and relevant
- Develop literacy skills appropriate to specialty area

Teachers know the content appropriate to their teaching specialty.

Teachers bring a richness and depth of understanding to their classrooms by knowing their subjects beyond the content they are expected to teach and by directing students' natural curiosity into an interest in learning. Elementary teachers have broad knowledge across disciplines. Middle school and high school teachers have depth in one or more specific content areas or disciplines.

- Know subject beyond the content they teach
- Direct students' curiosity into an interest in learning

Teachers recognize the interconnectedness of content areas/disciplines.

Teachers know the links and vertical alignment of the grade or subject they teach and the *North Carolina Standard Course of Study*. Teachers understand how the content they teach relates to other disciplines in order to deepen understanding and connect learning for students. Teachers promote global awareness and its relevance to the subjects they teach.

- Know links between grade/subject and the *North Carolina Standard Course of Study*
- Relate content to other disciplines
- Promote global awareness and its relevance

Teachers make instruction relevant to students.

Teachers incorporate 21st Century life skills into their teaching deliberately, strategically, and broadly. These skills include leadership, ethics, accountability, adaptability, personal productivity, personal responsibility, people skills, self-direction, and social responsibility. Teachers help their students understand the relationship between the *North Carolina Standard Course of Study* and 21st Century content which includes global awareness; financial, economic, business and entrepreneurial literacy; civic literacy; and health awareness.

- Incorporate life skills which include leadership, ethics, accountability, adaptability, personal productivity, personal responsibility, people skills, self-direction, and social responsibility
- Demonstrate the relationship between the core content and 21st Century content that includes global awareness; financial, economic, business and entrepreneurial literacy; civic literacy; and health and wellness awareness

IV STANDARD IV: TEACHERS FACILITATE LEARNING FOR THEIR STUDENTS

Teachers know the ways in which learning takes place, and they know the appropriate levels of intellectual, physical, social, and emotional development of their students.

Teachers know how students think and learn. Teachers understand the influences that affect individual student learning (development, culture, language proficiency, etc.) and differentiate their instruction accordingly. Teachers keep abreast of evolving research about student learning. They adapt resources to address the strengths and weaknesses of their students.

- Know how students think and learn
- Understand the influences on student learning and differentiate instruction
- Keep abreast of evolving research
- Adapt resources to address the strengths and weaknesses of students

Teachers plan instruction appropriate for their students.

Teachers collaborate with their colleagues and use a variety of data sources for short and long range planning based on the *North Carolina Standard Course of Study*. These plans reflect an understanding of how students learn. Teachers engage students in the learning process. They understand that instructional plans must be constantly monitored and modified to enhance learning. Teachers make the curriculum responsive to cultural diversity and to individual learning needs.

- Collaborate with colleagues
- Use data for short and long range planning
- Engage students in the learning process
- Monitor and modify plans to enhance student learning
- Respond to cultural diversity and learning needs of students

Teachers use a variety of instructional methods.

Teachers choose the methods and techniques that are most effective in meeting the needs of their students as they strive to eliminate achievement gaps. Teachers employ a wide range of techniques including information and communication technology, learning styles, and differentiated instruction.

- Choose methods and materials as they strive to eliminate achievement gaps
- Employ a wide range of techniques using information and communication technology, learning styles, and differentiated instruction



Teachers integrate and utilize technology in their instruction.

Teachers know when and how to use technology to maximize student learning. Teachers help students use technology to learn content, think critically, solve problems, discern reliability, use information, communicate, innovate, and collaborate.

- Know appropriate use
- Help students use technology to learn content, think critically, solve problems, discern reliability, use information, communicate, innovate, and collaborate

Teachers help students develop critical thinking and problem-solving skills.

Teachers encourage students to ask questions, think creatively, develop and test innovative ideas, synthesize knowledge and draw conclusions. They help students exercise and communicate sound reasoning; understand connections; make complex choices; and frame, analyze, and solve problems.

- Encourage students to ask questions, think creatively, develop and test innovative ideas, synthesize knowledge and draw conclusions
- Help students exercise and communicate sound reasoning; understand connections; make complex choices; and frame, analyze, and solve problems

Teachers help students work in teams and develop leadership qualities.

Teachers teach the importance of cooperation and collaboration. They organize learning teams in order to help students define roles, strengthen social ties, improve communication and collaborative skills, interact with people from different cultures and backgrounds, and develop leadership qualities.

- Teach the importance of cooperation and collaboration
- Organize learning teams in order to help students define roles, strengthen social ties, improve communication and collaborative skills, interact with people from different cultures and backgrounds, and develop leadership qualities

Teachers communicate effectively.

Teachers communicate in ways that are clearly understood by their students. They are perceptive listeners and are able to communicate with students in a variety of ways even when language is a barrier. Teachers help students articulate thoughts and ideas clearly and effectively.

- Communicate clearly with students in a variety of ways
- Assist students in articulating thoughts and ideas clearly and effectively

Teachers use a variety of methods to assess what each student has learned.

Teachers use multiple indicators, including formative and summative assessments, to evaluate student progress and growth as they strive to eliminate achievement gaps. Teachers provide opportunities, methods, feedback, and tools for students to assess themselves and each other. Teachers use 21st Century assessment systems to inform instruction and demonstrate evidence of students' 21st Century knowledge, skills, performance, and dispositions.

- Use multiple indicators, both formative and summative, to evaluate student progress
- Provide opportunities for self-assessment
- Use assessment systems to inform instruction and demonstrate evidence of students' 21st Century knowledge, skills, performance, and dispositions

STANDARD V: TEACHERS REFLECT ON THEIR PRACTICE

Teachers analyze student learning.

Teachers think systematically and critically about student learning in their classrooms and schools: why learning happens and what can be done to improve achievement. Teachers collect and analyze student performance data to improve school and classroom effectiveness. They adapt their practice based on research and data to best meet the needs of students.

- Think systematically and critically about learning in their classroom: why learning happens and what can be done to improve student achievement
- Collect and analyze student performance data to improve effectiveness

Teachers link professional growth to their professional goals.

Teachers participate in continued, high quality professional development that reflects a global view of educational practices; includes 21st Century skills and knowledge; aligns with the State Board of Education priorities; and meets the needs of students and their own professional growth.

- Participate in continued, high quality professional development

Teachers function effectively in a complex, dynamic environment.

Understanding that change is constant, teachers actively investigate and consider new ideas that improve teaching and learning. They adapt their practice based on research and data to best meet the needs of their students.

- Actively investigate and consider new ideas that improve teaching and learning
- Adapt practice based on data

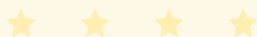


**NORTH CAROLINA
PROFESSIONAL TEACHING STANDARDS
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FOR MORE INFORMATION:

Carolyn McKinney, Executive Director
6328 Mail Service Center | Raleigh, NC 27699-6328
Phone: 919.807.3423 | Fax: 919.807.3426 | www.ncptsc.org



Available at <http://www.ncptsc.org/Final%20Standards%20Document.pdf>.

APPENDIX C: RUBRIC FOR EVALUATING NORTH CAROLINA TEACHERS

Rubric for Evaluating North Carolina Teachers (Required for Self Assessment and Observation)

This form should be used for the teacher self-assessment, classroom observation, and the summary evaluation.

Name: _____ Date: _____

School: _____ District: _____

Evaluator: _____ Title: _____

Start Time: _____ End Time: _____

Standard I: Teachers demonstrate leadership

Observation	a. Teachers lead in their classrooms. Teachers demonstrate leadership by taking responsibility for the progress of all students to ensure that they graduate from high school, are globally competitive for work and postsecondary education, and are prepared for life in the 21 st century. Teachers communicate this vision to their students. Using a variety of data sources, they organize, plan, and set goals that meet the needs of the individual student and the class. Teachers use various types of assessment data during the school year to evaluate student progress and to make adjustments to the teaching and learning process. They establish a safe, orderly environment, and create a culture that empowers students to collaborate and become lifelong learners.				
	Developing	Proficient	Accomplished	Distinguished	Not Demonstrated (Comment Required)
✓	<input type="checkbox"/> Understands how they contribute to students graduating from high school. <input type="checkbox"/> Uses data to understand the skills and abilities of students.	. . . and <input type="checkbox"/> Takes responsibility for the progress of students to ensure that they graduate from high school. <input type="checkbox"/> Provides evidence of data driven instruction throughout all classroom activities. <input type="checkbox"/> Establishes a safe and orderly classroom.	. . . and <input type="checkbox"/> Communicates to students the vision of being prepared for life in the 21 st century. <input type="checkbox"/> Evaluates student progress using a variety of assessment data. <input type="checkbox"/> Creates a classroom culture that empowers students to collaborate.	. . . and <input type="checkbox"/> Encourages students to take responsibility for their own learning. <input type="checkbox"/> Uses classroom assessment data to inform program planning. <input type="checkbox"/> Empowers and encourages students to create and maintain a safe and supportive school and community environment.	
	b. Teachers demonstrate leadership in the school. Teachers work collaboratively with school personnel to create a professional learning community. They analyze and use local, state, and national data to develop goals and strategies in the school improvement plan that enhances student learning and teacher working conditions. Teachers provide input in determining the school budget and in the selection of professional development that meets the needs of students and their own professional growth. They participate in the hiring process and collaborate with their colleagues to mentor and support teachers to improve the effectiveness of their departments or grade levels.				
	<input type="checkbox"/> Attends professional learning community meetings. <input type="checkbox"/> Displays awareness of the goals of the school improvement plan.	. . . and <input type="checkbox"/> Participates in professional learning community. <input type="checkbox"/> Participates in developing and/or implementing the school improvement plan.	. . . and <input type="checkbox"/> Assumes a leadership role in professional learning community. <input type="checkbox"/> Collaborates with school personnel on school improvement activities.	. . . and <input type="checkbox"/> Collaborates with colleagues to improve the quality of learning in the school. <input type="checkbox"/> Assumes a leadership role in implementing school improvement plan throughout the building.	

Examples of Artifacts:

<input type="checkbox"/> Lesson plans	<input type="checkbox"/> Class rules and procedures	<input type="checkbox"/> National Board Certification
<input type="checkbox"/> Journals	<input type="checkbox"/> Participation in The Teacher Working Condition Survey	<input type="checkbox"/> Discipline records
<input type="checkbox"/> Student handbooks	<input type="checkbox"/> Professional Learning Communities	<input type="checkbox"/> _____
<input type="checkbox"/> Student work	<input type="checkbox"/> Membership in professional organizations	<input type="checkbox"/> _____
<input type="checkbox"/> School improvement planning	<input type="checkbox"/> Formal and informal mentoring	<input type="checkbox"/> _____
<input type="checkbox"/> Service on committees	<input type="checkbox"/> Surveys	<input type="checkbox"/> _____
<input type="checkbox"/> Relevant data		<input type="checkbox"/> _____

Standard II: Teachers establish a respectful environment for a diverse population of students

Observation	a. Teachers provide an environment in which each child has a positive, nurturing relationship with caring adults. Teachers encourage an environment that is inviting, respectful, supportive, inclusive, and flexible.				
	Developing	Proficient	Accomplished	Distinguished	Not Demonstrated (Comment Required)
✓	<input type="checkbox"/> Appreciates and understands the need to establish nurturing relationships.	. . . and <input type="checkbox"/> Establishes an inviting, respectful, inclusive, flexible, and supportive learning environment.	. . . and <input type="checkbox"/> Maintains a positive and nurturing learning environment.	. . . and <input type="checkbox"/> Encourages and advises others to provide a nurturing and positive learning environment for all students.	
	b. Teachers embrace diversity in the school community and in the world. Teachers demonstrate their knowledge of the history of diverse cultures and their role in shaping global issues. They actively select materials and develop lessons that counteract stereotypes and incorporate histories and contributions of all cultures. Teachers recognize the influence of race, ethnicity, gender, religion, and other aspects of culture on a student's development and personality. Teachers strive to understand how a student's culture and background may influence his or her school performance. Teachers consider and incorporate different points of view in their instruction.				
✓	<input type="checkbox"/> Acknowledges that diverse cultures impact the world.	. . . and <input type="checkbox"/> Displays knowledge of diverse cultures, their histories, and their roles in shaping global issues.	. . . and <input type="checkbox"/> Uses materials or lessons that counteract stereotypes and acknowledges the contributions of all cultures.	. . . and <input type="checkbox"/> Promotes a deep understanding of cultures through the integration of culturally sensitive materials and ideas throughout the curriculum.	
✓	<input type="checkbox"/> Demonstrates awareness of the diversity of students in the classroom.	<input type="checkbox"/> Acknowledges the influence of race, ethnicity, gender, religion, socio-economics, and culture on a student's development and attitudes.	<input type="checkbox"/> Consistently incorporates different points of view in instruction.	<input type="checkbox"/> Capitalizes on diversity as an asset in the classroom.	
	c. Teachers treat students as individuals. Teachers maintain high expectations, including graduation from high school, for students of all backgrounds. Teachers appreciate the differences and value the contributions of each student in the learning environment by building positive, appropriate relationships.				
✓	<input type="checkbox"/> Holds high expectations of students.	. . . and <input type="checkbox"/> Communicates high expectations for all students.	. . . and <input type="checkbox"/> Encourages and values contributions of students, regardless of background or ability.	. . . and <input type="checkbox"/> Helps students hold high expectations for themselves and their peers.	

Observation	d. Teachers adapt their teaching for the benefit of students with special needs. Teachers collaborate with the range of support specialists to help meet the special needs of all students. Through inclusion and other models of effective practice, teachers engage students to ensure that their needs are met.				
	Developing	Proficient	Accomplished	Distinguished	Not Demonstrated (Comment Required)
✓	<input type="checkbox"/> Recognizes that students have a variety of learning needs.	... and <input type="checkbox"/> Collaborates with specialists who can support the special learning needs of students.	... and <input type="checkbox"/> Understands the roles of and collaborates with the full range of support specialists to help meet the special needs of all students.	... and <input type="checkbox"/> Anticipates the unique learning needs of students and solicits assistance from within and outside the school to address those needs.	
✓	<input type="checkbox"/> Is knowledgeable of effective practices for students with special needs.	<input type="checkbox"/> Provides unique learning opportunities such as inclusion and research based effective practices for students with special needs.	<input type="checkbox"/> Effectively engages special needs students in learning activities and ensures their unique learning needs are met.	<input type="checkbox"/> Adapts instruction for the benefit of students with special needs and helps colleagues do the same for their students.	
	e. Teachers work collaboratively with the families and significant adults in the lives of their students. Teachers recognize that educating children is a shared responsibility involving the school, parents or guardians, and the community. Teachers improve communication and collaboration between the school and the home and community in order to promote trust and understanding and build partnerships with all segments of the school community. Teachers seek solutions to overcome cultural and economic obstacles that may stand in the way of effective family and community involvement in the education of their students.				
	<input type="checkbox"/> Responds to family and community concerns.	... and <input type="checkbox"/> Communicates and collaborates with the home and community for the benefit of students.	... and <input type="checkbox"/> Recognizes obstacles to family and community participation and conscientiously seeks solutions to overcome them.	... and <input type="checkbox"/> Promotes trust and understanding throughout the school community.	

Comments

Examples of Artifacts:

- | | | |
|---|---|--------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Student profiles | <input type="checkbox"/> Communications with parents/ community | <input type="checkbox"/> _____ |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Student surveys | <input type="checkbox"/> Professional development on cultural attitudes and awareness | <input type="checkbox"/> _____ |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Cooperation with ESL teachers | <input type="checkbox"/> Use of technology to incorporate cultural awareness into lessons | <input type="checkbox"/> _____ |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Lessons that integrate international content | | |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Documentation of referral data and use of IEPs | | |

Standard III: Teachers know the content they teach

Observation	a. Teachers align their instruction with the North Carolina Standard Course of Study. In order to enhance the <i>North Carolina Standard Course of Study</i> , teachers investigate the content standards developed by professional organizations in their specialty area. They develop and apply strategies to make the curriculum rigorous and relevant for all students and provide a balanced curriculum that enhances literacy skills. Elementary teachers have explicit and thorough preparation in literacy instruction. Middle and high school teachers incorporate literacy instruction within the content area or discipline.				
	Developing	Proficient	Accomplished	Distinguished	Not Demonstrated (Comment Required)
✓	<input type="checkbox"/> Demonstrates an awareness of the <i>North Carolina Standard Course of Study</i> and references it in the preparation of lesson plans.	. . . and <input type="checkbox"/> Understands the <i>North Carolina Standard Course of Study</i> , uses it in preparation of lesson plans, and applies strategies to make the curriculum rigorous and relevant.	. . . and <input type="checkbox"/> Develops and applies strategies based on the <i>North Carolina Standard Course of Study</i> and standards developed by professional organizations to make the curriculum balanced, rigorous and relevant.	. . . and <input type="checkbox"/> Assists colleagues in applying such strategies in their classrooms.	
✓	<input type="checkbox"/> Elementary: Begins to integrate literacy instruction in selected lessons.	<input type="checkbox"/> Elementary: Integrates effective literacy instruction throughout the curriculum.	<input type="checkbox"/> Elementary: Evaluates and reflects upon the effectiveness of literacy instruction.	<input type="checkbox"/> Elementary: Makes necessary changes to instructional practice to improve student learning.	
✓	<input type="checkbox"/> Secondary: Recognizes the importance of integrating literacy strategies within the content areas.	<input type="checkbox"/> Secondary: Incorporates a wide variety of literacy skills within content areas to enhance learning.	<input type="checkbox"/> Secondary: Evaluates and reflects upon the effectiveness of literacy instruction within content areas.	<input type="checkbox"/> Secondary: Makes necessary changes to instructional practice to improve student learning.	
b. Teachers know the content appropriate to their teaching specialty. Teachers bring a richness and depth of understanding to their classrooms by knowing their subjects beyond the content they are expected to teach and by directing students' natural curiosity into an interest in learning. Elementary teachers have broad knowledge across disciplines. Middle school and high school teachers have depth in one or more specific content areas or disciplines.					
✓	<input type="checkbox"/> Demonstrates a basic level of content knowledge in the teaching specialty to which assigned.	. . . and <input type="checkbox"/> Demonstrates an appropriate level of content knowledge in the teaching specialty to which assigned.	. . . and <input type="checkbox"/> Applies knowledge of subject beyond the content in assigned teaching specialty. Motivates students to investigate the content area to expand their knowledge and satisfy their natural curiosity.	. . . and <input type="checkbox"/> Extends knowledge of subject beyond content in their teaching specialty and sparks students' curiosity for learning beyond the required course work.	

Observation	c. Teachers recognize the interconnectedness of content areas/disciplines. Teachers know the links and vertical alignment of the grade or subject they teach and the <i>North Carolina Standard Course of Study</i> . Teachers understand how the content they teach relates to other disciplines in order to deepen understanding and connect learning for students. Teachers promote global awareness and its relevance to subjects they teach.				
	Developing	Proficient	Accomplished	Distinguished	Not Demonstrated (Comment Required)
✓	<input type="checkbox"/> Understand the links between grade/subject and the <i>North Carolina Standard Course of Study</i> and <input type="checkbox"/> Demonstrates knowledge of links between grade/subject and the <i>North Carolina Standard Course of Study</i> and <input type="checkbox"/> Demonstrates knowledge of the links and vertical alignment of the grade or subject area and the <i>North Carolina Standard Course of Study</i> . Relates content to other disciplines.	... and <input type="checkbox"/> Collaborates with teachers from other grades or subject areas to establish links between disciplines and influence school-wide curriculum and teaching practice.	
✓	<input type="checkbox"/> Displays global awareness.	<input type="checkbox"/> Promotes global awareness and its relevance to the subjects.	<input type="checkbox"/> Integrates global awareness activities throughout lesson plans and classroom instructional practices.	<input type="checkbox"/> Promotes global awareness and its relevance to all faculty members, influencing curriculum and teaching practices throughout the school.	
d. Teachers make instruction relevant to students. Teachers incorporate 21 st century life skills into their teaching deliberately, strategically, and broadly. These skills include leadership, ethics, accountability, adaptability, personal productivity, personal responsibility, people skills, self-direction, and social responsibility. Teachers help their students understand the relationship between the <i>North Carolina Standard Course of Study</i> and 21 st century content, which includes global awareness; financial, economic, business and entrepreneurial literacy; civic literacy; and health awareness.					
✓	<input type="checkbox"/> Identifies relationships between the <i>North Carolina Standard Course of Study</i> and life in the 21 st century.	... and <input type="checkbox"/> Identifies relationships between the core content and 21 st century content.	... and <input type="checkbox"/> Integrates core content and 21 st century content throughout lesson plans and classroom instructional practices.	... and <input type="checkbox"/> Deepens students' understandings of 21 st century skills and helps them make their own connections and develop new skills.	

Comments

Examples of Artifacts:

- ☐ Display of creative student work
☐ Use of *NC Standard Course of Study*
☐ Lesson plans

- ☐ Content standards
☐ _____
☐ _____

- ☐ _____
☐ _____
☐ _____

Standard IV: Teachers facilitate learning for their students

Observation	a. Teachers know the ways in which learning takes place, and they know the appropriate levels of intellectual, physical, social, and emotional development of their students. Teachers know how students think and learn. Teachers understand the influences that affect individual student learning (development, culture, language proficiency, etc.) and differentiate their instruction accordingly. Teachers keep abreast of evolving research about student learning. They adapt resources to address the strengths and weaknesses of their students.				
	Developing	Proficient	Accomplished	Distinguished	Not Demonstrated (Comment Required)
✓	<input type="checkbox"/> Understands developmental levels of students and recognizes the need to differentiate instruction.	... and <input type="checkbox"/> Understands developmental levels of students and appropriately differentiates instruction.	... and <input type="checkbox"/> Identifies appropriate developmental levels of students and consistently and appropriately differentiates instruction.	... and <input type="checkbox"/> Encourages and guides colleagues to adapt instruction to align with students' developmental levels.	
✓		<input type="checkbox"/> Assesses resources needed to address strengths and weaknesses of students.	<input type="checkbox"/> Reviews and uses alternative resources or adapts existing resources to take advantage of student strengths or address weaknesses.	<input type="checkbox"/> Stays abreast of current research about student learning and emerging resources and encourages the school to adopt or adapt them for the benefit of all students.	
b. Teachers plan instruction appropriate for their students. Teachers collaborate with their colleagues and use a variety of data sources for short- and long-range planning based on the North Carolina Standard Course of Study. These plans reflect an understanding of how students learn. Teachers engage students in the learning process. They understand that instructional plans must be consistently monitored and modified to enhance learning. Teachers make the curriculum responsive to cultural differences and individual learning needs.					
✓	<input type="checkbox"/> Recognizes data sources important to planning instruction.	... and <input type="checkbox"/> Uses a variety of data for short- and long-range planning of instruction. Monitors and modifies instructional plans to enhance student learning.	... and <input type="checkbox"/> Monitors student performance and responds to individual learning needs in order to engage students in learning.	... and <input type="checkbox"/> Monitors student performance and responds to cultural diversity and learning needs through the school improvement process.	
c. Teachers use a variety of instructional methods. Teachers choose the methods and techniques that are most effective in meeting the needs of their students as they strive to eliminate achievement gaps. Teachers employ a wide range of techniques including information and communication technology, learning styles, and differentiated instruction.					
✓	<input type="checkbox"/> Demonstrates awareness of the variety of methods and materials necessary to meet the needs of all students.	... and <input type="checkbox"/> Demonstrates awareness or use of appropriate methods and materials necessary to meet the needs of all students.	... and <input type="checkbox"/> Ensures the success of all students through the selection and utilization of appropriate methods and materials.	... and <input type="checkbox"/> Stays abreast of emerging research areas and new and innovative materials and incorporates them into lesson plans and instructional strategies.	

Observation	d. Teachers integrate and utilize technology in their instruction. Teachers know when and how to use technology to maximize student learning. Teachers help students use technology to learn content, think critically, solve problems, discern reliability, use information, communicate, innovate, and collaborate.				
	Developing	Proficient	Accomplished	Distinguished	Not Demonstrated (Comment Required)
✓	<input type="checkbox"/> Assesses effective types of technology to use for instruction.	... and <input type="checkbox"/> Demonstrates knowledge of how to utilize technology in instruction.	... and <input type="checkbox"/> Integrates technology with instruction to maximize student learning.	... and <input type="checkbox"/> Provides evidence of student engagement in higher level thinking skills through the integration of technology.	
	e. Teachers help students develop critical-thinking and problem-solving skills. Teachers encourage students to ask questions, think creatively, develop and test innovative ideas, synthesize knowledge, and draw conclusions. They help students exercise and communicate sound reasoning; understand connections; make complex choices; and frame, analyze, and solve problems.				
✓	<input type="checkbox"/> Understands the importance of developing students' critical thinking and problem solving skills.	... and <input type="checkbox"/> Demonstrates knowledge of processes needed to support students in acquiring critical thinking skills and problem solving skills.	... and Teaches students the processes needed to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> think creatively and critically, <input type="checkbox"/> develop and test innovative ideas, <input type="checkbox"/> synthesize knowledge, <input type="checkbox"/> draw conclusions, <input type="checkbox"/> exercise and communicate sound reasoning, <input type="checkbox"/> understand connections, <input type="checkbox"/> make complex choices, and <input type="checkbox"/> frame, analyze and solve problems. 	... and <input type="checkbox"/> Encourages and assists teachers throughout the school to integrate critical thinking and problem solving skills into their instructional practices.	
	f. Teachers help students work in teams and develop leadership qualities. Teachers teach the importance of cooperation and collaboration. They organize learning teams in order to help students define roles, strengthen social ties, improve communication and collaborative skills, interact with people from different cultures and backgrounds, and develop leadership qualities.				
✓	<input type="checkbox"/> Provides opportunities for cooperation, collaboration, and leadership through student learning teams.	... and <input type="checkbox"/> Organizes student learning teams for the purpose of developing cooperation, collaboration, and student leadership.	... and <input type="checkbox"/> Encourages students to create and manage learning teams.	... and <input type="checkbox"/> Fosters the development of student leadership and teamwork skills to be used beyond the classroom.	

Observation	g. Teachers communicate effectively. Teachers communicate in ways that are clearly understood by their students. They are perceptive listeners and are able to communicate with students in a variety of ways even when language is a barrier. Teachers help students articulate thoughts and ideas clearly and effectively.				
	Developing	Proficient	Accomplished	Distinguished	Not Demonstrated (Comment Required)
✓	<input type="checkbox"/> Demonstrates the ability to effectively communicate with students.	. . . and <input type="checkbox"/> Uses a variety of methods for communication with all students.	. . . and <input type="checkbox"/> Creates a variety of methods to communicate with all students.	<input type="checkbox"/> Anticipates possible student misunderstandings and proactively develops teaching techniques to mitigate concerns.	
✓	<input type="checkbox"/> Provides opportunities for students to articulate thoughts and ideas.	<input type="checkbox"/> Consistently encourages and supports students to articulate thoughts and ideas clearly and effectively.	<input type="checkbox"/> Establishes classroom practices, which encourage all students to develop effective communication skills.	<input type="checkbox"/> Establishes school-wide and grade appropriate vehicles to encourage students throughout the school to develop effective communication skills.	
	h. Teachers use a variety of methods to assess what each student has learned. Teachers use multiple indicators, including formative and summative assessments, to evaluate student progress and growth as they strive to eliminate achievement gaps. Teachers provide opportunities, methods, feedback, and tools for students to assess themselves and each other. Teachers use 21 st century assessment systems to inform instruction and demonstrate evidence of students' 21 st century knowledge, skills, performance, and dispositions.				
	Developing	Proficient	Accomplished	Distinguished	Not Demonstrated (Comment Required)
✓	<input type="checkbox"/> Uses indicators to monitor and evaluate student progress.	. . . and <input type="checkbox"/> Uses multiple indicators, both formative and summative, to monitor and evaluate student progress and to inform instruction.	. . . and <input type="checkbox"/> Uses the information gained from the assessment activities to improve teaching practice and student learning.	<input type="checkbox"/> Teaches students and encourages them to use peer and self-assessment feedback to assess their own learning.	
✓	<input type="checkbox"/> Assesses students in the attainment of 21 st century knowledge, skills, and dispositions.	<input type="checkbox"/> Provides evidence that students attain 21 st century knowledge, skills and dispositions.	<input type="checkbox"/> Provides opportunities for students to assess themselves and others.	<input type="checkbox"/> Encourages and guides colleagues to assess 21 st century skills, knowledge, and dispositions and to use the assessment information to adjust their instructional practice.	

Comments

Examples of Artifacts:

- | | | |
|--|--|--------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Lesson plans | <input type="checkbox"/> Documentation of differentiated instruction | <input type="checkbox"/> _____ |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Display of technology used | <input type="checkbox"/> Materials used to promote critical thinking and problem solving | <input type="checkbox"/> _____ |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Professional development | <input type="checkbox"/> Collaborative lesson planning | <input type="checkbox"/> _____ |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Use of student learning teams | | |

Examples of Artifacts:

<input type="checkbox"/> Lesson plans	<input type="checkbox"/> Completion of professional development	<input type="checkbox"/> _____
<input type="checkbox"/> Formative assessments	<input type="checkbox"/> Participation in professional learning community	<input type="checkbox"/> _____
<input type="checkbox"/> Student work		<input type="checkbox"/> _____
<input type="checkbox"/> Professional Development Plan	<input type="checkbox"/> Formative and summative assessment data	<input type="checkbox"/> _____

-

Rubric for Evaluating North Carolina Teachers

Signature Page

Teacher Signature

Date

Principal/Evaluator Signature

Date

Peer Signature, if applicable

Date

Comments Attached: ____ Yes ____ No

Principal/Evaluator Signature
(Signature indicates question above regarding comments has been addressed).

Date

Peer Signature, if applicable
(Signature indicates question above regarding comments has been addressed).

Date

Note: The teacher's signature on this form represents neither acceptance nor approval of the report. It does, however, indicate that the teacher has reviewed the report with the evaluator and may reply in writing. The signature of the principal or evaluator verifies that the report has been reviewed and that the proper process has been followed according to North Carolina State Board of Education Policy for the Teacher Evaluation Process.

APPENDIX D: NORTH CAROLINA TEACHER PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN

Preliminary Development Plan		Mid-Year Review		End-of-Year Review	
Plan Name	Preliminary Development Plan 20	Form Status	Editing		
Teacher Name	Teacher Demo10	Position	Back-office Support		
School	Demo Elementary School	District	Client District		
Mentor	Doe Jane	Subject Area			
School Year	2010-2011	Teacher Status	Probationary Teacher Year 1		
Lateral Entry	1	Plan	Individual		
A. Professional Teaching Standards 1. Teachers demonstrate leadership 2. Teachers establish a respectful environment for a diverse population of students 3. Teachers know the content they teach 4. Teachers facilitate learning for their students 5. Teachers reflect on their practice		Standard(s) to be addressed: Element(s) to be addressed: 			
B. Teacher's Strategies					
Goals for Elements	Activities/Actions	Expected Outcomes and Evidence of Completion	Resource Needed	Timeline	
Electronic Signature					
Teacher's Signature		Mentor's Signature		Administrator's Signature	
<input type="checkbox"/> Click the checkbox to sign.		<input type="checkbox"/> Click the checkbox to sign.		<input type="checkbox"/> Click the checkbox to sign.	

Preliminary Development Plan		Mid-Year Review		End-of-Year Review	
Plan Name	Preliminary Development Plan 20	Form Status	Editing		
Teacher Name	Teacher Demo10	Position	Back-office Support		
School	Demo Elementary School	District	Client District		
Mentor	Doe Jane	Subject Area			
School Year	2010-2011	Teacher Status	Probationary Teacher Year 1		
Lateral Entry	1	Plan	Individual		
Mid-Year Review to be completed by (date) <No dates set>					
C. Evidence of Progress Toward Specific Standards of Elements to be Addressed/Enhanced					
D. Narrative					
Teacher's Comments:		Mentor's Comments:		Administrator's Comments:	
Electronic Signature					
Teacher's Signature		Mentor's Signature		Administrator's Signature	
<input type="checkbox"/> Click the checkbox to sign.		<input type="checkbox"/> Click the checkbox to sign.		<input type="checkbox"/> Click the checkbox to sign.	

Preliminary Development Plan		Mid-Year Review		End-of-Year Review	
Plan Name	Preliminary Development Plan 20	Form Status	Editing		
Teacher Name	Teacher Demo10	Position	Back-office Support	Preliminary Development Plan - Review	
School	Demo Elementary School	District	Client District		
Mentor	Doe Jane	Subject Area			
School Year	2010-2011	Teacher Status	Probationary Teacher Year 1		
Lateral Entry	1	Plan	Individual		
End-of-Year Review to be completed by (date) <No dates set>					
E. Evidence of Progress Toward Specific Standards of Elements to be Addressed/Enhanced					
F.					
Goal 1 was successfully completed	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Goal 2 was successfully completed	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Goal 3 was successfully completed	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Goal 4 was successfully completed	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Goal 5 was successfully completed	<input type="checkbox"/>				
G. Narrative					
Teacher's Comments:		Mentor's Comments:		Administrator's Comments:	
Electronic Signature					
Teacher's Signature		Mentor's Signature		Administrator's Signature	
<input type="checkbox"/> Click the checkbox to sign.		<input type="checkbox"/> Click the checkbox to sign.		<input type="checkbox"/> Click the checkbox to sign.	

Retrieved from the North Carolina Educator Evaluation System site: <https://mxweb.media-x.com/home/ncval/demo/>.

APPENDIX E: ATTESTATIONS DOCUMENTS

Attestations document completed and submitted to the North Carolina Professional Teaching Standards Commission on December 10, 2010

Thank you for your request concerning data from the North Carolina Teacher Working Conditions Survey in MS Excel format. It is public information, and the NC Professional Teaching Standards Commission is pleased to provide it. However, demographic information is not usually provided as to ensure anonymity of the respondents.

A written request describing the specific data needed as well as the intended use must be provided by reply to this email. The statements below must receive a response. You do not need to be overly extensive in responding to these, but the state wants to ensure the anonymity of survey responses is protected.

1. Be clear on the research question you are addressing and why/how the NC TWC data is necessary and will be utilized to answer it

I plan to conduct a study as part of my doctoral research with East Carolina University. It is my hope that the specific questions identified from the TWC data will help provide preliminary information about whether the new teacher evaluation process has had an effect on teacher perceptions. The questions from the TWC that are pertinent to this study are listed below.

From the 2008 NC TWC Survey, I will need the state set of responses, identified by LEA, for the following three questions:

1. Q5.1 k. Teachers are held to high professional standards for delivering instruction.
2. Q5.1 n. Teachers receive feedback that can help them improve teaching.
3. Q5.1 m. The procedures for teacher performance evaluations are consistent.

From the 2010 NC TWC Survey, I will need the state set of responses, identified by LEA, for the following five questions:

1. Q7.1 e. Teachers are held to high professional standards for delivering instruction.
2. Q7.1 h. Teachers receive feedback that can help them improve teaching.
3. Q7.1 i. The procedures for teacher evaluation are consistent.
4. Q8.1 h. Teachers are encouraged to reflect on their own practice.
5. Q9.1 f. Teachers are encouraged to try new things to improve instruction.

The research questions for my study are listed below and are directly related to the TWC questions identified. For the purposes of my study, the group referenced as *Phase I Only* is the set of seven districts that were in Phase I of the implementation of the NCTEP, but were not involved in the Pilot during 2007-08. The group referenced as *Experienced LEAs* includes 16 LEAs that had approximately two to three years of experience by the time of the 2010 TWC. That group includes all 13 Phase I LEAs and the three Phase II LEAs that were involved in the pilot. The other two sets of responses I plan to study are those from the 59 Phase III LEAs that were not involved in the pilot, denoted *Phase III Only*, and the set of responses from the state as a whole.

1. Is there a difference in the perceptions of teachers in the *Phase I Only* LEAs as expressed in the 2010 TWC Survey as compared to the 2008 TWC Survey regarding whether
 - a. They are held to high professional standards for delivering instruction?
 - b. They receive feedback that can help them improve instruction?
 - c. Procedures for teacher evaluation are consistent?

2. Is there a difference in the perceptions of teachers in the *Experienced LEAs* and the perceptions of teachers in the *Phase III Only* LEAs as expressed in the 2010 TWC Survey regarding whether
 - a. They are held to high professional standards for delivering instruction?
 - b. They receive feedback that can help them improve instruction?
 - c. Procedures for teacher evaluation are consistent?
 - d. They are encouraged to reflect on their own practice?
 - e. They are encouraged to try new things to improve instruction?
3. Is there a difference in the perceptions of teachers in the *Experienced LEAs* and the perceptions of teachers in the state as a whole as expressed in the 2010 TWC Survey regarding whether
 - a. They are held to high professional standards for delivering instruction?
 - b. They receive feedback that can help them improve instruction?
 - c. Procedures for teacher evaluation are consistent?
 - d. They are encouraged to reflect on their own practice?
 - e. They are encouraged to try new things to improve instruction?

A series of *t* tests will be conducted for each of the above sets of questions. The purpose of these comparisons is to determine whether there are any differences in perceptions of North Carolina teachers toward teacher evaluation before and after experience with the new policy and process (Research Question 1) or whether there are differences between groups of teachers based on their level of experience with the new process (Research Questions 2 and 3).

2. Be specific about the data you need (whole state set, or select districts). The biggest question is whether you need demographic information provided by respondents as part of the database.

I will need the whole state set of data, teacher responses only, identified only by LEA, for the eight questions specified above – three from 2008 and five from 2010. I will not need this data identified by school or by teacher, nor will I need any demographic information for individual respondents. In order to preserve anonymity, I would request that any coding that would identify individuals or schools be removed, leaving the data identified by LEA only, and, to ensure the applicability of the responses to the research questions, that only responses from classroom teachers be included.

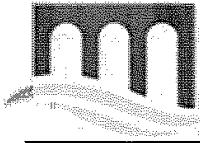
3. What assurances will you make to protect the anonymity of individual responses while in possession of the data and in any publication?

As indicated by the research questions listed, I will not be using any individual responses for this study. In addition, I will not be identifying specific LEAs by name. I plan to analyze the data in the predefined groups as identified in the research questions and will only report findings in that same format. Once the data arrives, I will immediately change designations for specific LEAs to code name that identify each as a member of the appropriate group (such as PIO-A or PIO-B for *Phase I Only* LEAs and PIIIO-A or PIIIO-B for *Phase III Only* LEAs), keeping the original information in a secure location.

4. Ensure that you will send any final product/publication to the NCPTSC at least 10 business days before publication.

I agree to send, upon completion, an electronic copy of my dissertation to the NCPTSC.

APPENDIX F: INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL LETTER



EAST CAROLINA UNIVERSITY

University & Medical Center Institutional Review Board Office
1L-09 Brody Medical Sciences Building • 600 Moye Boulevard • Greenville, NC 27834
Office 252-744-2914 • Fax 252-744-2284 • www.ecu.edu/irb

Date: December 10, 2010

Principal Investigator: Pamela Breedlove
Dept./Ctr./Institute: 2604 Horseshoe Dr.
Mailstop or Address: Rocky Mount, NC 27804

RE: Exempt Certification *KK*
UMCIRB# 10-0720
Funding Source: Unfunded

Title: "Teacher evaluation in North Carolina: Teacher Perceptions during a time of change."

Dear Pamela Breedlove:

On 12.8.10, the University & Medical Center Institutional Review Board (UMCIRB) determined that your research meets ECU requirements and federal exemption criterion #4 which includes Research involving the collection or study of existing data, documents, records, pathological specimens, or diagnostic specimens, if these sources are publicly available or if the information is recorded by the investigator in such a manner that subjects cannot be identified, directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects. **NOTE: 1) This information must be existing on the date this IRB application is submitted. 2) The data collection tool may not have an identifier or code that links data to the source of the information.**

It is your responsibility to ensure that this research is conducted in the manner reported in your Internal Processing Form and Protocol, as well as being consistent with the ethical principles of the Belmont Report and your profession.

This research study does not require any additional interaction with the UMCIRB unless there are proposed changes to this study. Any change, prior to implementing that change, must be submitted to the UMCIRB for review and approval. The UMCIRB will determine if the change impacts the eligibility of the research for exempt status. If more substantive review is required, you will be notified within five business days.

The UMCIRB Office will hold your exemption application for a period of five years from the date of this letter. If you wish to continue this protocol beyond this period, you will need to submit an Exemption Certification Request at least 30 days before the end of the five year period.

Sincerely,

Chairperson, University & Medical Center Institutional Review Board